THE

MODERN TRAVELLER.

VOLUME THE SEVENTEENTH.

RUSSIA.

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THE

MODERN TRAVELLER.

A

DESCRIPTION,

GEOGRAPHICAL, HISTORICAL, AND TOPOGRAPHICAL,

OF THE

VARIOUS COUNTRIES OF THE GLOBE.

IN THIRTY VOLUMES.

By JOSIAH CONDER.

VOLUME THE SEVENTEENTH.

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THE

MODERN TRAVELLER,

ETC. ETC.

RUSSIA.

[An empire in Europe and Asia, lying between lat. 38° N. and 78° N.: bounded on the N. by the Arctic Sea; on the S. by Turkey, the Black Sea, the territory of the Kirguiss Cossacks, and the Chinese dominions; on the E. by the Pacific Ocean; and on the W. by Swedish Lapland, the Gulf of Bothnia, Prussia, and Poland.]

About the middle of the ninth century, an embassy was sent from Theophilus, Emperor of the East, to Lewis, the son of Charlemagne, Emperor of the West. In the train, and under the protection of this embassy, were some Russians: this was the first time that the name of this people was divulged. These Russians, who were envoys of the great duke, having traversed many hostile nations in their journey to Constantinople, were desirous of regaining their country by a safer route; and they accordingly requested the French monarch to send them by sea to Russia, an event which took place A.D. 839. Twenty-two years after this, the foundation of the present kingdom of Russia was laid by Ruric, a Scandinavian

chief. At the head of some Varangians, or Corsairs of the Baltic, he invaded the eastern shores of that sea, and reduced the Finnic and Slavonic tribes that inhabited the neighbourhood of Lake Ladoga. His descendants held the sceptre above 700 years.

His immediate successor gained possession of Kiew, to which place he removed the seat of government from Novogorod. In the tenth century, the Russians were masters of the spacious province of Moscow; the Baltic Sea and Prussia formed their western frontier; they had pushed their conquests to the 60th degree of N. latitude; and towards the S., following the course of the Borysthenes, they had approached the vicinity of the Euxine Sea. Such were the limits of the Russian territories in the tenth century, as laid down by the Emperor Constantine Porphyrogenitus; for even at that early period, they had become formidable to Constantinople. Within 190 years, they had made four attempts to plunder the treasures of that city; and it was even then asserted and believed, that an equestrian statue in the square of Taurus was inscribed with a prophecy, that the Russians would eventually become masters of Constantinople.

All these expeditions against the capital of the Eastern Empire were made by sea: the Borysthenes, crowded and commanded by their numberless boats, afforded them a ready and quick passage into the Euxine, and thence their naval skill and courage conducted them to Constantinople. No permanent result followed from these piratical invasions; but the friendly relations between the Russians and the Emperor of the East, which seem to have been scarcely injured by their occasional wars, led gradually to the civilisation of the former. The baptism of Olga, the wife of Igor, the son of Ruric, may be fixed as the

era of Russian Christianity. She had assumed the sceptre on the death of her husband; and in A.D. 935, sailed from Kiew to Constantinople, where she was baptized. Her family and nation, however, adhered for some time to the idolatry of their fathers; and her son and immediate successor, Sviatoslaw, was more disposed to gain the confidence and applause of his companions and subjects by his rude and undaunted bravery, than to expose himself to their scorn and ridicule by introducing and countenancing a new religion. By his valour, the nations between the Volga and the Danube were subdued and repelled, Bulgaria was conquered, Adrianople was taken, and Constantinople itself was threatened. His further progress, however, was checked by John Zimisces; and after repeated defeats and losses, he was glad to accept the liberal terms offered by the conqueror,—a safe passage to the mouth of the Borysthenes. In his route home to Kiew, he was slain by some of the neighbouring tribes.

Vladimir, his third son, devoted his youthful zeal to multiply and adorn the monuments of idolatry; but the efforts of the Greek missionaries, aided by his desire to marry Anne, sister of the emperor of Constantinople, converted him to Christianity. All Russia followed his example; and in the next generation, the relics of paganism were extirpated.

The history may be properly, as it is generally, divided into six periods. The first terminates at the death of Vladimir, who divided his territories among his ten children: the second period, from A.D. 1015 to 1258, comprehends the fatal consequences that resulted from this division. Andrew, who reigned in 1157, removed the seat of government from Kiew to the city of Vladimir. Towards the end of this

period, the Tâtars began their invasions of Russia.* The third period comprises the events that occurred from the time of the subjugation of Russia by the Tâtars, to the establishment of the seat of government at Moscow; that is, from A.D. 1238 to 1325. Kiew, which began to decline on the removal of the seat of government from it, was taken by the Tâtars in 1239: after its fall, "the navigation of the Borysthenes was forgotten; the great princes of Vladimir and Moscow were separated from the sea and Christendom, and the divided monarchy was oppressed by the ignominy and blindness of Tâtar servitude." Ivan I., with whom the fourth period commences, during which the greater part of Russia was still subject to the power or the invasions of the Tâtars, declared Moscow the capital of Russia; but that city, about thirty years after it was thus distinguished, was taken and burnt by these Asiatic hordes. In 1425, about eighty years subsequently to this disastrous event, silver money was first coined in Russia. At length, at the commencement of the fifth period, in 1462, Ivan III. mounted the throne; a prince who, by his talents and his good fortune, restored union, consistency, and independence to the Russian states.

This great duke, who was surnamed the Proud, united under his government the different principali-

* Mr. Gibbon mentions a curious instance of the influence of the Tâtar invasion, to a distance, and in reference to an article of food to which there seems no probability it could have extended. "In the year 1238, the inhabitants of Gothia (Sweden) and Frise were prevented, by their fear of the Tartars, from sending, as usual, their ships to the herring fishery on the coast of England; and as there was no exportation, forty or fifty of these fish were sold for a shilling (Matthew Paris, p. 196). It is whimsical enough, that the orders of a Mogul khan, who reigned on the borders of China, should have lowered the price of herrings in the English market."—*Decline and Fall*, vol. xi. p. 422, *note*.

ties, or appanages, and subdued Novogorod, which, during the internal troubles and the Tâtar invasion and conquests of Russia, had achieved and preserved its independence. This prince also freed himself and his country entirely from the yoke of the Tâtars, and imposed tribute on the kingdom of Cazan. He invited and encouraged foreigners of talent and information to settle in his territories: by one of them, Aristotle of Bologna, the money was re-coined, and gunpowder and the art of casting cannon were introduced. He died, or was assassinated, A.D. 1505, after a reign of forty-three years.

The next sovereign by whom the territories of Russia were enlarged, was Ivan IV., surnamed the Terrible, and by foreigners the Tyrant: he began his reign in 1533. He first taught his soldiers the use of fire-arms, and by means of these, conquered the kingdoms of Cazan and Astrakan. Siberia also was annexed to Russia during his reign. He was not, however, merely a warlike prince: to him the Russians are indebted for the first code of laws, and the introduction of printing. He invited foreign artists to Moscow, encouraged commerce, and permitted the English (one of whose ships, in an attempt to find out the N.E. passage, had discovered Archangel) to establish factories in his dominions. Before his time, as the Russians had no ports except Archangel, which, from its situation, was of no use for foreign commerce, their trade had been altogether in the hands of the Livonians; but, by the conquest of Astrakan, the commerce of the Caspian Sea was opened to them, and by the temporary conquest of Narva in 1558, they were first introduced to an experience of the advantages they might derive from the possession of ports in the Baltic. It ought also

to be recorded to the honour of Ivan IV., that he encouraged religious toleration. At the death of his successor, Theodor I., in 1598, the dynasty of Rurik ended: it had reigned above seven centuries.

Boris, the brother-in-law of the last sovereign, whose talents and activity had raised him to the highest offices of the state, was elected in his stead: his reign was distinguished and disturbed by famine, insurrections, and impostors, several of whom assumed the name of Demetrius, the son of Ivan IV., whom Boris had murdered.

The next reign, that of Theodor II., the son of Boris, was also filled with trouble and disaster. Deserted by his principal generals, defeated by the false Demetrius, and at last altogether forsaken, Moscow was seized by its own inhabitants, the palace stormed, and Theodor deposed and strangled. The false Demetrius now ascended the throne, but his folly and his vices drove him from it, at the end of eleven months, when he also was murdered. The reign of his successor was, if possible, still more disgraceful and calamitous to Russia: his name was Vassili. He had headed the insurrection against Demetrius; but scarcely was he seated on the throne, when a general insurrection broke out; pillage and murder, especially of the Poles, took place; impostors arose; and Russia, thus distracted, weakened, and in confusion, was invaded by the Poles, who deposed, captured, and sent to Poland the sovereign, where he died, in 1612. From his deposition in 1610 to 1613, there was an interregnum. While it lasted, Russia was invaded by the Poles from the south, who occupied Moscow; and by the Swedes from the west, who seized Novogorod. In this disastrous state, two leaders appeared, Minin and Pojarskū; the former a simple citizen, a butcher

of Nignei-Novogorod, the other a nobleman and warrior. By their talents, aided by the zeal of the people, the Poles were repeatedly vanquished, Moscow was wrested from them, and, finally, Russia restored to political independence. Michael, the first sovereign of the present dynasty, — the House of Romanof, was elected Czar by a general assembly of the nobles, burghers, merchants, and persons of property and distinction. By his wise and cautious administration, universal tranquillity was re-established.

Michael was elected in 1613, and reigned thirty-two years: his reign was glorious for himself, and prosperous for his country. He was succeeded by his son Alexis, father of Peter the Great. Alexis directed his views and endeavours principally to such plans as would secure Russia at once from internal troubles and foreign invasion. He introduced a more regular discipline into the army; revised, amended, and new-modelled the code of laws compiled by Ivan; invited foreign officers into his service; and built a navy on the Caspian Sea, under the direction of ship-builders whom he procured from Amsterdam. In short, he may be said to have been the first sovereign of Russia who adopted those measures for the improvement of his country, which have been regularly and steadily pursued by almost every one of his successors; and it has been justly remarked, that his merit has been too much overlooked, especially by those who wished to flatter and exalt Peter the Great.

Alexis was immediately succeeded by Theodor III., a son by his first wife. During his short reign, from 1676 to 1682, the influence of his sister Sophia, and the abilities of his prime minister, Galitzin, supplied his own want of energy and talent; and his government proved advantageous to the country. On

his death, Ivan Alexeivitch, and Peter the Great, the son of Alexis by his second wife, ascended the throne conjointly: Sophia and Peter were, however, in fact, the sovereigns. The principal events of the reign of Peter the Great, and their results, are well known. He first formed a Russian navy, re-organised and increased the army, promulgated necessary and useful laws, purified, as far as he durst, the religion of the country, introduced and protected foreigners of talent and information; and thus established arts, sciences, and literature. His activity in war was beneficial to Russia: he greatly enlarged her territories, especially by the countries on the Baltic, which he wrested from Sweden. By building St Petersburgh, and making it the seat of empire, he brought Russia more immediately and powerfully in contact with the rest of Europe, and thus gave her an influence in its politics, and a better opportunity of keeping pace with it in power, civilisation, wealth, and science. His real merits, and the benefits he actually conferred on his country, are sufficiently great in themselves, and do not require to be exaggerated, as they generally have been, by representing Russia as weaker and more barbarous than it actually was when he succeeded to the throne; or by overlooking or depreciating those measures of his father's which set him an example, and prepared and smoothed the way for what he undertook and accomplished. Peter the Great died in 1725, and was succeeded by his wife, the Empress Catherine I. To her prudence and talents he had been much indebted; and during her short reign of little more than two years, she prosecuted with vigour and success all his plans for the aggrandisement and improvement of Russia. The reign of Peter II., grandson of Peter

the Great, presents nothing very remarkable. He was succeeded, in 1730, by the Empress Anne, niece of Peter the Great. This princess, who suffered herself to be governed by Biron, interfered with the affairs of Poland, carried on a successful war with the Turks and Tâtars, and invaded the Crimea. She named, as her successor, Ivan, son of the Princess Anne and the Prince of Brunswick, and died in 1740. During Ivan's reign, occurred scenes of intrigue and murder, such as have more than once since that period stained the Russian annals: after a reign of twenty-four years, he was succeeded by the Empress Elizabeth. This sovereign waged wars with Sweden and with Prussia, in both of which she was successful. During her reign, punishment by death was unknown. In her personal character and conduct she was notoriously licentious. In 1761, Peter III., grandson by his mother of Peter the Great, ascended the throne. He rendered himself obnoxious to the Russians by his attempts to change their national customs. His wife Catherine, a woman of great talents, but of no principle, taking advantage of his imprudence and unpopularity, forced him to resign the crown, and after his murder succeeded him.

The reign of Catherine II. was one of the most brilliant and successful that Russia had witnessed, but was at the same time stained by political turpitude, as in the partition of Poland, and by most barbarous murders, such as took place at Praga, near Warsaw, and on the capture of Ismael in Bessarabia. The licentiousness of her morals equalled her political duplicity; and the savage manner in which she ordered or permitted her generals to carry on war, was revolting to humanity. It must be acknowledged, however, that she pursued with zeal, perseverance,

and success, what may be justly charaterised as the hereditary plans of the Russian sovereigns, the extension of their empire in all directions, but more especially towards Constantinople, the Mediterranean, and the East Indies. She was continually at war with Turkey, the fleet of which was burnt; and was one of the confederate powers in the partition of Poland. She added to her territories the Crimea, Azof, a part of Cuban, and all the country between the Dnieper, the Bog, the Dniester, and the Black Sea. Having plainly and strongly pointed out her crimes as a sovereign and a woman, justice requires that we should not pass over her meritorious actions. To her hereditary love and plans of conquest, to be achieved by any means and at any cost, she added what may be deemed an equally hereditary object, the civilisation and improvement of her subjects. She formed a new code of laws, on principles perhaps too abstract, and having too little reference to the peculiar character, habits, and circumstances of her people, but, in their influence, generally beneficial. She encouraged the arts and sciences, literature, and commerce. One of the chief and most effectual, as well as obvious means of improving Russia, that of inviting foreign settlers, which seems to have been adopted even so early as the reign of the immediate successors of Ruric, — was followed by her with great effect. But she not only invited and encouraged foreigners of talent and science to settle in her dominions; she also established colonies of them on the Volga and the Don. She embellished the capital, and in short advanced in many respects the improvement of the nation. At no period and on no occasion was her cautious, or, perhaps, it may be called selfish policy, more apparent and influential than in her conduct at the commencement of the French Re-

volution. She was open and violent in her reprobation of it; encouraged the views and plans of the continental sovereigns in their attempts to crush it; held out promises of assistance; made preparations for it; but died without having done any thing effectual and decisive. Her reign began in 1762, and ended in 1796.

Her successor, Paul, exhibited through the whole of his reign the character and conduct of a madman: his freaks and extravagant despotism can scarcely be paralleled even in the annals of Eastern tyranny. His foreign politics were vacillating and unaccountable; his domestic regulations, if possible, still more absurd, dangerous to himself, and utterly useless, if not positively injurious, to his people. At length, after a reign of five years, he was deposed and assassinated.

The Emperor Alexander, who at present sits on the throne, succeeded him in 1801. At one time the friend and ally of Bonaparte, and the sharer with him in the spoils of his unprovoked, unprincipled, but successful wars, — at another time, his decided opponent, censuring in the most open manner his plans of aggrandisement; at the same moment, protecting and encouraging Bible Societies and the education of his people, and interfering with the spread of political knowledge and of liberty in states far from his own, and with which he possessed not the smallest right to interfere; sometimes wise and liberal, sometimes the reverse in his commercial policy; sometimes exhibiting great and undoubted decision and firmness of character, at other times vacillating, undetermined, and easily guided; his character baffles all who endeavour to describe him as he actually is. In the midst, however, of this apparent inconsistency, he also has been guided by the two hereditary principles of the Russian

monarchs, — the extension of the empire, especially towards the S. and S.E., and the improvement and civilisation of his subjects, chiefly by inviting and encouraging men of science and literature, and by establishing colonies of foreign agriculturists.* The invasion of Russia by the French; the unparalleled misery and destruction resulting to them from that enterprise; the burning of Moscow; the march of the Russian troops into France; the resignation of Bonaparte, and the restoration of the Bourbons, both of which events may justly be ascribed to the disasters which the French experienced during their Russian campaign; the influential and decided part which Alexander was thus justified and enabled to take in the politics of the continent of Europe: — these are the most remarkable events that have hitherto distinguished his reign.

"But a few centuries ago," remarks Dr. Lyall, "the Russian territory formed a fourth part of the present European Russia, and about a seventeenth part of the present Russian empire. In the reign of Ivan III., this territory was augmented 10,000 square miles; and in the reign of Vassili, 14,000 square miles. Ivan IV. tripled the extent of his dominions, and Theodor I. greatly extended them. In the reign of Alexis, all the provinces that had been taken by the Poles, were reconquered; and besides, he added 257,000 square miles

* It ought not, however, to be forgotten, that the Russian autocrat, though the most despotic in theory of any monarch in Christendom, is, in reality, thralled and controlled by a formidable combination of powerful and unprincipled nobles, to whom it is well understood that the liberal views of the pupil of La Harpe were exceedingly unpalatable. It is highly probable, that much of what is questionable, both in the general and the domestic policy of the emperor, is attributable to his situation rather than his deliberate preferences.

to the Russian states. Under the sway of Theodor III., the dreary region of Nova Zembla was acquired. Peter the Great extended his dominions 280,000 square miles. The Empress Anne, treading in the same path of augmentation, left behind her a realm of above 324,000 square miles in extent; and while Catherine II. held the sceptre of the north, the territory was increased to 335,000 square miles. In the reign of Paul, and since the present sovereign ascended the throne, the empire has been enlarged to no less than 345,000 geographical square miles, of which 85,000 belong to Europe, and 260,000 to Asia. And we might prophesy, if the same system of aggrandisement be persevered in, he may bequeath to his successor an empire of 400,000, or even 500,000 square miles. There is matter here to occupy the mind of the politician; there is room for the serious meditations of Europe, and especially for the continental sovereigns!"

TERRITORIAL BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.

The Russian empire exceeds in magnitude the largest monarchy in ancient or modern times.* It is

* The Roman empire, at the height of its grandeur, was equal only to the European part of Russia: its greatest length, from the Euphrates to the Western Ocean, amounted to 3,000 miles: its greatest breadth, from the Wall of Antoninus to the Pillars of Hercules, 2,000 miles. From Riga to the Haven of Peter and Paul, the length of the Russian empire is 11,434 miles. The possessions of the Romans extended somewhat short of 32° of latitude; those of Russia exceed 35°. Mr. Tooke justly remarks, however, that the seeming superiority immediately vanishes, when we contrast the climate, fertility, populousness, and civilisation of the Roman empire, which extended over the finest part of the temperate zone, from the 24th to the 25th degree of north latitude, with the excessive cold, the sterility, and the scanty and barbarous population of a very large portion of the Russian territory.

bounded on the W. by Swedish Lapland and the Gulf of Bothnia, Prussia, and Gallicia; on the S. by the Ottoman empire, the Black Sea, and the steppes of the Kirguiss Cossacks; from the Irtish to the Eastern Ocean by the Chinese territories. The boundary line between the Russian and Chinese empires, is the most extensive on the globe, reaching from about the 65th to the 145th degree of longitude: eighty degrees of which, in latitude 50°, computed at 39 geographical miles, will give the result of 3,120 miles as the extent of the boundary line between the two states. Towards the east, Russia is bounded by the Pacific, or Oriental Ocean, and to the north by the Frozen Ocean. Besides this immense extent of territory, Russia possesses some islands in the Baltic, the Kuriles, Aleutian, and other groupes near Kamschatka, and some establishments on the north-west coast of America. The emperor of Russia is also king of Poland, that is, of that part of Poland which Russia at various times has seized. This was confirmed to him, and the title of king given, by the congress of Vienna in the year 1815.

The greatest extent of this empire is from the west side of the Isle of Oisel,* at the entrance of the Gulf of Riga, to Cape Tchoutzhotsk, in Siberia; that is, (comprehending the most distant isles,) from the 20th to the 190th degree of east longitude from Greenwich: consequently it stretches over 170 degrees of longitude. Its extent from north to south varies; in some places it begins at the 47th, and terminates at the 71st degree of north latitude; in others, at the

* Strictly speaking, the Aland Islands, which lie very near the Swedish coast, form the frontier of the Russian empire on this side: the line of their coast was settled as the boundary between the two kingdoms by the treaty of 1809.

45th, the 40th, and even the 55th degree, and terminates at the 73d or 78th: its greatest extent in a southerly direction is 38°.

Though the name of Russia is now given to the whole empire, the appellation was originally confined to two districts; 1. Great Russia, which has always borne this name, comprising Moscow, Vladimir, Novogorod, and the adjacent tracts of country; and, 2. White Russia, an appellation long confined to the present government of Smolensko, but under which, at present, are likewise comprehended the governments of Polotzk and Mohilof. The large district toward the Ukraine, Poland, and Turkey, is sometimes called New Russia. These are the original possessions or very early conquests of Russia; but, by the Russian empire is likewise understood more recent conquests.—1. The kingdom of Cazan; 2. the kingdom of Astrakan; 3. Siberia; 4. the provinces on the shores of the Baltic, captured from the Swedes by Peter the Great, and, very recently, by Alexander; 5. the countries wrested from Poland and Turkey; 6. the Crimea, Cuban, Georgia, the government of Caucasus, &c.; 7. the islands in the Eastern Ocean, besides smaller districts, and the islands and settlements in America.

Peter the Great first divided the empire into provinces. Catherine II. made some alterations at the commencement of her reign; and she subsequently divided the whole empire into three regions, the north, middle, and south. Each region was subdivided into governments, and these again into districts, military governors being appointed to each government. The Emperor Alexander diminished their number, so that at present there are military governors only at Petersburgh, Finland, Riga, Mohilof, Grodno, Moscow, Smolensko, Kiew, Caucasus,

and Orenburgh; there are also civil governors over these districts, but they are subordinate to the military. There are governors-general over Tver, Siberia, Permia, Lesser Russia, and the Taurida; the rest of the provinces have each a civil governor. There are in the whole fifty-two governments; these, however, do not comprehend the recent acquisitions in Finland, the circle of Bielostosk, and some districts in Gallicia.

POPULATION.

An inspection of the map of Russia, as well as the general account we have given of this empire, will prevent us from being surprised at the comparative smallness of its population: a climate excessively cold and ungenial, immense tracts of country unimproved, and many of them unimprovable by the utmost skill and labour of man, and the ignorance and barbarism of a large portion of the inhabitants, are circumstances that cannot possibly co-exist with a numerous population. The population of Russia, indeed, has increased greatly within the last century; but not, as has been the case with the United States of America, from immigration, or the existence of causes particularly favourable to such increase, but almost entirely from accessions of territories which have generally been acquired in fertile districts. The following table shews the progressive increase of the population of Russia by births, conquests, and the introduction of foreign colonies, during the last hundred years:*

* Where there is no number under the census, the statement is taken from different statistical works referred to by Dr. Lyall in his pamphlet on the Military Colonies of Russia.

Census.	Year.	Number of people.
1	1722	14,000,000
2	1742	16,000,000
3	1762	20,000,000
4	1782	28,000,000
5	1795	36,000,000
—	1807	35,000,000
6	1811	37,000,000
—	1818	45,542,000
—	1824	50,000,000

Of the 45,542,000 inhabitants which Russia contained in the year 1818, Cromè calculates that 11,000,000 belonged to Siberia; whereas of the 50,000,000, in 1824, Dupin reckons only about 6,000,000 as inhabiting Siberia. In some provinces, the births to the deaths are as 13 to 10, 20 to 10, and 30 to 10. From 1722 to 1792, that is, in seventy years, the population increased from 14 to 35,000,000. It has been calculated, that it has doubled in less than half a century. But it is evident, that where increase of population depends almost exclusively on conquest, there can be no data for such calculation.

Perhaps, in no population of equal number in any other part of the earth, is there so great a variety of races of people, as the 50,000,000 of the Russian empire comprehend. They may be thus distinguished and divided: — 1. Those of Slavonic origin: the Russians (properly so called) and the Poles are of this race, and likewise the inhabitants of Lithuania, Courland, &c.; they form the majority of the population, amounting to about 34,000,000. 2. Germans: all the noblesse and burghers of Finland, Livonia, Esthonia, and Courland, are Germans, as well as most of the colonists in the interior and south of the empire: with these, as of the same Gothic race, may be enumerated the Swedes, who inhabit Finland, and the Danes, who inhabit two of the Baltic isles belonging

to Russia. 3. The Fins: these are subdivided into thirteen tribes, the principal of which are the Fins proper, in Finland; the Esthonians and Livonians, in the governments of Riga and Revel; the Laplanders; the Permians, and the Ostians of the Ob. 4. People of the Tâtar race. of these there are numerous varieties; the chief are, the Tâtars, generally so called, who inhabit the Crimea, the southern districts of the Volga, &c. &c. 5. Georgians, Caucasians, and Circassians. 6. People of the Mongol race: these are subdivided into the Mongols proper, who inhabit the southern part of Siberia, the Calmucks, and the Bouriats. 7. The Samoyeds; Nomadic tribes on the borders of the Frozen Ocean. 8. The Manshures, Tunguses, and Lamutes. 9. The Nomad tribes, in the north and east of Siberia. 10. Turks and Armenians, in Moldavia and Bessarabia.

The religion of Russia is that of the Greek church, but all other religions are tolerated, and possess liberty of worship. Prior to the reign of Peter the Great, the powers and privileges of the patriarch of the Russias were excessive; but that emperor reduced them within moderate and defined limits. The clergy are very numerous, but, in general, poor and ignorant: the secular clergy can marry. It is reckoned that there are nearly 19,000 cathedrals and parish churches in the empire, besides monasteries and nunneries. Peter the Great and Catherine II. reformed the discipline and morals, and curtailed the privileges of the clergy in many respects. The Slavonic population of Russia are all of the Greek religion; there are also many Greek Christians in Asiatic Russia and Siberia; the other sects of Christians are, Roman Catholics, consisting chiefly of the Poles, Lithuanians, and Germans; Lutherans, and Armenians. There

are immense numbers of Jews, especially in Russian Poland; Mohammedans, among the Tâtar inhabitants; Bramins, and various other kinds of idolaters, among the Caucasians, Georgians, Circassians, and Mongol tribes.

The Slavonic is the foundation of the Russian language; it differs essentially from the Celtic, the Gothic, and the Latin, the origin and the materials of all the other languages of Europe: there are thirty-five characters in the alphabet, many of which express sounds extremely difficult, from the combination of consonants, to be pronounced by a foreigner. The Russian language is little known to the rest of Europe; nor has it, till lately, been much cultivated in Russia itself, in consequence of the German prevailing so generally among the higher and literary classes. Latterly, however, Russian literature has begun to flourish, and it has exhibited proofs of richness and sublimity in its poetry. It would be uninteresting and almost endless to enumerate the languages of the numerous tribes scattered throughout the Russian empire: of the three great and distinct barbaric nations in Asiatic Russia, the Tâtars, Mongols, and Tunguses, the languages are radically different.

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

In a country stretching from the Frozen Ocean to the Black Sea, great diversity of climate must be expected: but a very imperfect and erroneous notion of the climate of this empire will be formed, if the limits of its latitude alone are regarded. It is well known, that the western side of a country often enjoys a milder, though a moister climate, than the eastern side; and that under the same parallel of latitude, distance from the sea increases the severity of the

climate. Hence, in proceeding under any parallel of latitude, from the western limits of the Roman empire across Europe into Asiatic Russia, the cold is found gradually to increase; so that Siberia, a great part of which lies within the same parallels of latitude as Great Britain, experiences a degree of cold scarcely endurable, and very many degrees above that experienced in this country, even for a few days, in the most severe winter. Perhaps, the degree of cold often experienced on the borders of the Black Sea, though not so great, is more unaccountable; nor does it seem to admit of a satisfactory explanation, from the want of those beneficial influences on climate produced by improved cultivation. It is plain, however, that the severity of the Russian climate in the central parts of the empire, and its comparative coldness even in many of its southern districts, must be ascribed to immense forests and undrained land.

European Russia may be generally characterised as a champaign country, consisting, for the most part, of plains, or steppes of immense extent: these are, in general, dry and healthy. Some of them, in the southern districts, are elevated considerably above the level of the sea; but in the northern and eastern parts of Asiatic Russia, the plains, which occupy a very large tract, are marshy. Forests of great extent are common, especially between Petersburgh and Moscow, near Moscow, and in the southern parts of Asiatic Russia.

The rivers of Russia are very numerous and large, though comparatively few of them communicate directly with any of the great oceans of the globe. In European Russia, the Volga, that falls into the Caspian, and divides, for a great part of its course, Europe and Asia; the Don, or Tanais, which falls

into the Sea of Azof; the Dnieper, or Borysthenes, which falls into the Euxine; the Dneister, which falls into the same sea; the Dwina, which falls into the Gulf of Archangel; the Duna, which flows into the Baltic; and the Neva, which falls into the Gulf of Finland;—are the largest and most celebrated. Several of the rivers in Asiatic Russia approach, in magnitude and in the length of their course, any others on the globe; but these rivers, also, in general, conduct to seas unapproachable by navigation or commerce. The Ob, which is the largest, flows into a gulf of the same name that joins the Arctic Ocean. The same ocean receives the Lena and Yenisci, both rivers of a long course and great magnitude, while the Sea of Baikal receives the Selenga. The lakes and inland seas of Russia are numerous, and some of them very large: the chief lakes of European Russia are in the north-west; namely, those of Onega and Ladoga; to the south-west is the lake of Peipouss; near Novogorod, the Lake of Ilmen; in the same government is the Beilo, or White Lake. There are also several lakes near the rise of the Volga. Some of the lakes in Asiatic Russia are so immense, that they deserve and have received the appellation of seas: of these, the Caspian is the most celebrated and extensive. Another remarkable detached sea is that of Baikal in Siberia. In the northern part of this district of Asiatic Russia is the Lake of Piasinsko; and between the Ob and the Irtish is a large lake, nearly half the size of the Baikal.

From the general description already given of the face of the country in European Russia, it will be evident that it does not abound in mountains: the most important are those of Olonetz in the north, and those of Ural, which divide Europe from Asia. In Asiatic

Russia, the grandest chain is that of Altai in Siberia: the mountains of Nershink, or Russian Daouria, near the Salenga and Amur, are also of great height and extent. The mountains of Caucasus, in the south, form a partial limit between the Russian and Persian empires.

The manufactures of Russia are few and unimportant: her raw produce, or such articles as require little skill, industry, and capital to fit them for the use of man, constitute the sources of her wealth. Her commerce by sea is carried on in the Baltic and the Euxine; she has also a considerable maritime commerce in the Caspian: her land commerce is principally with Prussia, Persia, and China.

This brief, general sketch of the Russian empire will enable our readers to come with more interest and advantage to the perusal of the routes in various directions, which we are about to describe. In tracing these routes, opportunities will be afforded of entering fully into most of those subjects of which we have now given only a hasty outline, and of laying before our readers a faithful and accurate picture of Russia and its inhabitants, such as they at present exist.

The two principal cities of this vast empire are St. Petersburgh and Moscow; the latter its ancient, the former its modern capital. The route between these is the most frequented and the most important, though not the most interesting and characteristic, in the whole empire. A description of these capitals and of this route will, therefore, claim our first attention.

ST. PETERSBURGH.

St. Petersburgh is situated on the banks of the Neva, at its mouth, and at the eastern extremity of

the Gulf of Finland, in 59° 56′ 23″ north latitude, and 30° 18′ 45″ east longitude, from Greenwich: it is built partly on islands formed by the Neva, and partly on both sides of that river. The situation is low and level: it is thus exposed to considerable inundations from the waters of the gulf and those of the river; the most extraordinary and destructive of these we shall presently notice. The Neva forms an angle where the city is built, its course running first northward, and then westward. In this angle, on the left bank of the river, is situated the most considerable portion of St. Petersburgh, in a form approaching that of a triangle. The whole city is divided into five parts: the Admiralty Quarter; the Vassili Ostroff, or island; the Island of St. Petersburgh; the district of Wiburgh; and the Foundry Quarter. The islands of St. Petersburgh and Vassili are insulated tracts on the north of the river, and constitute the site of the original buildings of the city. These five districts are subdivided into eleven smaller divisions, over each of which is placed a major of police, assisted by several subordinate officers.

No city in Europe, ancient or modern, equals St. Petersburgh in the width and regularity of its streets: this character belongs even to the oldest quarters of it. The admiralty is the most elegant and fashionable division: three streets diverge in straight lines, each of which is two miles in length. In general, the long and principal streets are intersected at regular distances by smaller ones. In the old districts, particularly in the Vassili Ostroff, there are many wooden houses; and in the suburbs, there are many spaces unoccupied by buildings. Improvements and additions, however, are constantly going on; and, as the old houses decay, new ones of

brick are built: stone edifices are very rare, though the stucco with which the brick is covered and ornamented, gives them very much the appearance of stone. The roofs of most of the houses are flat, and covered with iron or copper; tiles, formerly common for this purpose, are now seldom employed. The timber houses are generally built of round balks; the outsides cased with boards and painted: they cannot by law be more than one story, with a cellaring. The brick houses usually consist of only two stories: most of them have a basement story, raised a little above the pavement; this is often built of granite, and is occupied by the servants, or let out for shops. From the low situation of the town, the streets, except in frost, are wet and marshy; they are mostly paved with stone, though some are still covered with planks, the original rude covering; there is a foot pavement, which, even when the centre of the streets is little better than a morass, is dry and comfortable for foot-passengers.

What is called the first Admiralty quarter, is the smallest but most elegant division of Petersburgh. Within its circuit are twenty-three structures of the first magnitude. Of these, the imperial winter palace is the most celebrated. It is 450 feet long, 380 broad, and 70 high; but it is more remarkable for its size than for its architecture: in it is deposited an immense variety of curious and costly works of all descriptions. Connected with it, by means of a covered gallery, is the hermitage, a spacious edifice, so called from its being the scene of imperial retirement: it was built by Catherine II., and contains a valuable collection of paintings, including the collection of Houghton House, the loss of which, as Mr. Coxe justly remarks, every lover of the arts must sincerely regret,—a library, and

a cabinet of natural history. The second building in this quarter of the town worthy of notice, is the marble palace. Few buildings in any part of Europe surpass this in magnificence: it is three stories high, the lowermost of granite, the superstructure of grey marble, decorated with columns and pilasters of a reddish marble. Nothing in the exterior presents itself to the eye but stone or metal: the window-frames are of brass highly polished; the roof rests on iron bars, and is covered with sheet copper. The whole forms an oblong quadrangle. It is situated on the quay of the Neva; but, had the principal façade been turned towards that river, the whole building would have had an incomparably grander effect. It was built originally for Gregory Orloff, one of the favourites of Catherine II., and at his death reverted to that empress. In this quarter of Petersburgh are also the college of foreign affairs, the post-offices, the senate-house, the loan-bank, and the admiralty.

The only church worthy of notice in this part of the city, is that of St. Isaac: it was begun by Catherine II., who, however, did not live to finish it. Like the marble palace, the basement is granite, and the superstructure of marble, jasper, and porphyry, both within and without. It was one of the freaks of Paul to finish it with brick. The three straight, long, and beautiful streets of this quarter of the town have been already mentioned: they are called perspectives, because from each may be seen the gilded spire of the admiralty. Of these, the Nevski perspective is the most remarkable: there is in it only one little turn, and it is at least half as wide again as Oxford Street in London. "The numerous hotels and the shops," observes Storch, "which are mostly placed together in this street, occasion such a con-

fluence of people, and such a constant bustle, that give it a consequence that is wanting to most parts of St. Petersburgh. But, though the Nevski perspective is so remarkable for all these advantages, it becomes infinitely more so in the sight of the philosophical spectator, as the monument of a wise and enlightened toleration. One church here is concatenated with another: Protestants, Catholics, Lutherans, Armenians, and Greeks, have in this street their several churches beside and facing each other."

The celebrated equestrian statue of Peter the Great is in this quarter: it is the work of Falconet, a French statuary, and is in every respect one of the noblest specimens of art which the last century produced. It is of a colossal size. The emperor is represented crowned with laurel, in an Asiatic vest, his right hand in the act of blessing his people, his left holding the reins: he is mounting a precipice, the summit of which he has nearly reached; and the horse is rearing on his hind legs. The immense weight of the statue is ingeniously contrived to be supported by the full and flowing tail of the horse slightly touching a bronze serpent. The pedestal, a reddish granite, is formed of a stone which, though upwards of 1,500 tons weight, was brought to Petersburgh from a morass about nine miles distant. In its original dimensions it was forty-two feet long at the base, thirty-six at the top, twenty-one thick, and seventeen high;—"a bulk greatly surpassing in weight the most boasted monuments of Roman grandeur." Its size, however, was necessarily diminished, in order to form a perfect station for the statue. This magnificent monument is not spoiled by an elaborate or pompous eulogy. The simple and concise inscription, "Catherine II. to Peter I.," admirably corresponds to the character

of the man to whom it is dedicated, the materials of which it is formed, its magnitude, design, and execution.

As we recede from this centre of magnificence and luxury, the city assumes a more calm and common appearance. The chief public edifices of the second Admiralty quarter are, the new court stables, the college of medicine, and the opera-house. Two of the most considerable Greek churches are also within the precincts of this quarter; that of Notre Dame of Cazan, and that of St. Nicholas. The former on several accounts merits a particular description. It was originally built in 1734 by the Empress Anne; the dome was then of wood, and its architecture ill corresponded to that of more modern edifices erected near it; being, moreover, considered as the cathedral church of Petersburgh, in which the Russian sovereigns returned thanks to the Deity for the prosperous events of their reigns,—it was determined to rebuild it in a manner and on a scale more appropriate to its character and peculiar use. Accordingly, the Emperor Paul, in 1800, ordered plans for this purpose to be submitted to him: that of a Russian architect was approved of; but the death of that emperor occurring, the execution devolved on Alexander. Ten years were employed in the building, and it was consecrated on the 15th of September, 1811. In every respect it is magnificent and rich: the door before the principal altar, and the balustrade around it, are of massy silver. The jaspers and marbles of Olonetz and Siberia are employed in great profusion, both in the form of mosaic and in other ornaments. Its exterior is very rich and beautiful: there is a colonnade of one hundred and fifty columns of the Corinthian order; their bases and chapiters are of cast iron. The por-

tico is adorned with two bronze statues of the archangels, Gabriel and Michael. The principal external door is likewise of bronze: it is a perfect copy of the famous door of the cathedral of Florence. Every article and material employed in the construction and ornamenting of this church is the production of the Russian empire; and almost all the artists, architects, painters, and sculptors were Russians. It is rich in precious stones, and in gold and silver vessels, the gifts of the imperial family.

The new bank, perhaps the most elegant building in St. Petersburgh, is the principal ornament of the third Admiralty quarter. Its architecture is simply grand, the workmanship of the very first order: its roof is covered with plates of iron. It consists of three distinct compartments: two covered corridors connect the main building with the side edifices.

The Vassili Ostroff is the largest island in the Neva. Only the eastern and smaller part is inhabited; the rest is covered with gardens, trees, and morass. Three principal streets traverse this island from east to west, and these are intersected at right angles by twelve smaller ones. This division is the seat of commerce and of learning, the exchange and the Academy of Sciences being in it. The building in which the meetings of the latter are held, is a very elegant structure. The edifices of the land-cadet corps are also in this island. Towards the isle of St. Petersburgh are the custom-house and the new exchange; the latter was finished in the reign of the present emperor. The Lutheran church of St. Catherine, designed partly from the model of the Temple of Concord, is the most remarkable for its architecture in this division of the city.

The Petersburgh quarter consists of several islands,

some of which are little built upon. The Petersburgh island contains the first wooden cottage of Peter the Great. This he ordered to be built in the beginning of the year 1703, when he gave the island the name of St. Petersburgh, from which the new metropolis took its name. The hut is low and small: over it is erected a brick building on arches, to preserve it from the weather. "Near it was soon afterwards constructed another wooden habitation, but larger and more commodious, in which Prince Mentchikof resided, and gave audience to foreign ministers. At a small distance was an inn, much frequented by the courtiers and persons of all ranks, to which Peter himself on Sundays, after Divine service, frequently repaired, and would there drink with his suite and others who happened to be present, as spectators of the fire-works and diversions which were exhibited by his orders."* As soon as this emperor had extended his conquests to the shores of the Baltic, he erected a fortress on a small island at the mouth of the Neva: this, which is sometimes regarded as a separate quarter, more properly belongs to the Petersburgh quarter of the town. When this fortress was built, the island contained only a small hamlet, consisting of a few fishermen's huts. An author who was in Russia at that period informs us, "that the labourers were not furnished with the necessary tools, as pickaxes, spades, shovels, wheelbarrows, planks, and the like; notwithstanding which, the work went on with such expedition, that it was surprising to see the fortress raised within less than five months, though the earth, which is very scarce thereabouts, was, for the greater part, carried by the labourers in the skirts of their clothes, and in bags made of

* Coxe's Travels in Russia, vol. ii. p. 239.

rags and old mats, the use of wheelbarrows being then unknown to them."*

The Wiburgh quarter is more rural in its appearance than any of the others, since, beside the street along the right bank of the Neva, it is principally occupied by the cottages of the peasantry: there are nevertheless two grand mansions within its precincts. Besides the great military hospital founded by Peter the Great, and some other public buildings of less magnitude, it also contains a wharf for merchant-ships. The division of the Foundry is so called from a foundry established there: the most remarkable edifices and establishments in it are, the Institute of Catherine, for the education of young ladies, the convent of the Resurrection for the same purpose, the great magazine for spirituous liquors and salt, the foundry already mentioned, the arsenal, and the Taurida palace. This, originally the pantheon of Prince Potemkin, was purchased on his death by Catherine for her autumnal palace: it is remarkable for its vast galleries, its winter garden, its English garden, and its grotto formed of mirrors. The convent of St. Alexander Newsky adorns this quarter: it contains apartments for sixty *religieux*, a large dwelling for the archbishop of Petersburgh, a seminary, five churches, a cemetery, and a garden.

The opposite divisions of St. Petersburgh, situated on each side of the Neva, are connected by pontoons or bridges of boats. The islands we have already described, are formed by two branches of this river. Over the main stream, which is called the Great Neva, there are two bridges of pontoons: the one which connects the first Admiralty quarter with the Vassili Ostroff, is 130 fathoms long, and rests on twenty-one

* Perry's State of Russia, vol. i. p. 300.

barges, each held in its place by two anchors. The mechanism of all these bridges is so simple, that they can be taken to pieces in less than two hours. This is done as soon as the floating ice at the beginning of the winter comes down: when the ice is fixed, they are again put up; and are taken down a second time at the breaking up of the ice in spring. But the ice which continues firm, and capable of supporting any weight for five or six months, forms the principal communication in winter between the different quarters of the city. Several plans have been formed for the erection of a permanent bridge across the Neva, but the practicability of such a measure seems very doubtful. A wall, parapet, and pavement of hewn granite, stretch along the south bank of the Neva for three miles. This structure, which forms the quay, is one of the most striking and stupendous works by which this city of magnificent buildings is characterised. The southern portion of Petersburgh is divided, not by the river, but by canals, some of which have also been embanked in a similar manner.

The great triangle of edifices on the left side of the river is intersected by three principal canals; these form irregular semicircles, one within another. The Moika forms the smallest semicircle; the Katarina canal embraces this; and the Fontanka includes both. The Moika runs quite through the heart of the city, in the midst of the most frequented districts; this is a disadvantage and an eye-sore, as its bed is shallow, in some places nearly choaked up with mud; and, being circuitous, the streets on each side of it are consequently narrow and inconvenient. There are several wooden bridges over it. Its sides were lined with timber till the reign of Alexander, who caused them to be formed of granite. This canal was formed

by the emperor's order. The Katarina canal, originally a swamp rivulet, was constructed by the empress whose name it bears: its sides are lined with granite, and along them is a convenient and handsome foot-pavement: it is connected with the Neva by the Nicolai canal. There are several bridges over it, some of which are draw-bridges. The Fontanka canal is by far the handsomest, and is, indeed, one of the greatest curiosities in St. Petersburgh; it was originally, like the others, a useless and unwholesome marsh-rivulet. It rises from the Neva, at the extremity of the summer-garden, and, after having traversed the whole city, terminates in the Gulf of Finland: it is 3,000 fathoms long, from 10 to 12 broad, and upwards of a fathom in depth. Both its banks are lined with granite; eight bridges of stone cross it. The fine walk along its banks, the excellence of its water, and the breadth of the streets which line it, have caused many princely mansions to be built adjoining it.

The situation of St. Petersburgh, on the Gulf of Finland and the banks of the Neva, is very favourable to commerce, and advantageous in other respects; but these advantages are in some measure counterbalanced by evils arising from that very situation. It is exposed to dreadful inundations, occasioned chiefly by a west or south-west wind, which, blowing directly from the gulf, prevents the exit of the Neva, and occasions a vast accumulation of water. If the westerly wind continues for some time, the water rises ten feet above its level; at five feet, it overflows only the western part of the town, in those places where there is no embankment; but only the easternmost parts escape when the waters rise to ten feet. These floods, however, are in general less alarming and destructive than formerly, owing principally to the gradual

raising of the ground by buildings and other causes. The most ancient inundation, of which there is any record, was before the city was built, in 1691. The waters at that period seem to have risen usually every five years. On the 1st November, 1726, the waters rose eight feet two inches; on the 2d October, 1752, eight feet five inches. On September 10, 1777, there was a dreadful inundation, in consequence of a violent storm of wind from the west and south-west. In several streets, the torrent was four feet and a half deep, and so powerful, that it carried before it several buildings and bridges: the Vassili Ostroff and the Island of St. Petersburgh particularly suffered. It began at five in the morning; about seven, the wind shifting suddenly to the north-west, the flood fell as rapidly as it had arisen. For a short time, the river rose ten feet abovs its ordinary level.

In consequence of this inundation, precautionary measures have been taken, to warn the inhabitants of the approaching evil: the height of the water is regularly marked. Whenever it rises above its banks at the mouth of the great Neva, notice is given by three distinct firings of cannon, repeated at intervals as the danger increases: five cannon are also fired at the Admiralty battery; and from its steeple, by day, four white flags are displayed, by night four lanterns, the bells of the churches tolling at the same time.

All these precautions, however, were inadequate to preserve the city from a most dreadful calamity in November, 1824. "On the night of the 10th of that month, so strong a westerly wind impeded the current from the Ladoga Lake, that the Neva and the canals rose to an unusual height, and lamps were hung out around the Admiralty steeple, to warn people not to sleep in their lowest apartments,—a signal which

custom has familiarised them to. Early on the next day, the waters had so risen, that the white flag was hung out, and guns were fired to admonish the city of its danger. It was soon too apparent that these admonitions were necessary; the Neva rose so as to inundate the whole city, and the confusion and destruction became indescribable. Vehicles of all descriptions, says a private letter, were now seen hurrying homewards, or to the bridges, or to some rising ground, with the water over the wheels; people were also seen wading through it up to their waists; in a short time, only a courier here and there appeared on horseback, their horses scarcely able to keep their heads above the water. At one o'clock on the 19th, nothing was to be seen on the Grand Place and in the streets, but wooden barks, empty boats, sentry-boxes, timber, furniture washed from the houses, bread, and various kinds of provisions, all floating in confused masses on the boisterous surface; wooden houses were seen floating up the river, most of the inhabitants of which had perished! Even the churchyards experienced an additional desolation. In the Smolensko quarter of the town, the coffins were washed out of their graves, and the dead bodies were cast up from their quiet habitations. Numbers had struggled up pillars, to the tops of the trees, and on the highest eminences, and were gradually saved from the fate of their companions by a few boats, which literally plied above the roofs of many of the houses! An eye-witness says, 'On Saturday the 20th, at daybreak, I went out to view the effects of this catastrophe. I found the quay of the Neva blocked up with timber, broken barges, galliots, and vessels of various descriptions, which had carried with them the pillars and lamp-posts of the houses, and had broken in the windows, and otherwise

damaged the edifices on the quay. The large blocks of granite, of which the parapet is composed, were thrown over. The St. Isaac's, the Toochkoff, and summer-garden bridges, were broken away from their anchors, and dispersed and destroyed. Many of the streets were so choked up with their timber, as to be almost impassable. In the Vassili Ostroff quarter, where most of the houses are of wood, the destruction was immense; whole dwellings were hurled from their foundations, some of which were found at a considerable distance from the spot on which they stood, with the dead bodies of their unfortunate inhabitants within; others were broken into pieces on the spot, and some of them have been so totally destroyed that not a fragment of them remains.' Wooden barracks with many of their inmates were totally overwhelmed: an entire regiment of carabineers who had climbed up the roofs of one of them, all perished! Eight thousand dead bodies had been already found, and multitudes were carried by the retreating waters down the Gulf of Finland; many, also, were supposed to remain buried in the ruins of their habitations. Of course, many instances of individual affliction during the rapidity of the inundation must have occurred: the following seems to us particularly affecting. A lady and child in a carriage were in a dangerous situation, when a cossack riding by, observed her distress, and stopped; she entreated him at all hazards to save the child; he took it from the carriage window, but in a few minutes his horse slipped, and they both perished; soon afterwards, the lady, with her servants, horses, and baggage, were overwhelmed in the waters. When we state the loss of human beings as already ascertained to have amounted to upwards of 8,000, it may seem almost

unfeeling to think of estimating the destruction of property; but many of those who have escaped the flood are doomed, in the wreck of their all, to combat the more tedious mortality of famine. All the provisions in the city had been more or less damaged, and the frost had set in so severely, that any supply from sea was considered almost hopeless. The exchange had been fitted up to receive 4,000 persons; and such of the public buildings as escaped, were opened for the reception of the homeless. The number of these is beyond all present calculation. Our readers may, however, form some faint idea of it from the fact, that whole villages in the neighbourhood of the city had almost entirely disappeared: of Emilianowka, not a trace remained! The imperial establishments at Constadt suffered greatly, and the fleet sustained irreparable damage: a ship of one hundred guns was left in the middle of one of the principal streets! In the imperial iron manufactory at Catharinoff, 200 workmen perished; and out of eighteen barracks, no less than fifteen were washed away. Such are a few, and but a few, of the results of this dreadful calamity. Alexander was a helpless witness of the scene from his palace windows: what a lesson for human ambition! A few years before, an emperor as powerful and as seemingly secure, found the grave of his fortune in the ruins of the other capital. To do him justice, he seems to have been deeply afflicted at the spectacle; but indeed, what indifferent sojourner would not! A million of ruble have been subscribed from the imperial purse, and a committee appointed for their immediate distribution; the reigning family have personally visited and succoured the miserable survivors; and all that human charity can do, under such a visitation, is in active progress. The loss of

commercial property has been immense; in sugar alone, it is said that 10,800,000lbs. were damaged, and nearly half the quantity completely melted."

On the banks of the Neva, the most grand and lively scenes that St. Petersburgh exhibits, are seen to the greatest advantage. In many places this river equals in breadth the Thames at London; it is deep, rapid, clear, and its banks are lined with handsome buildings. On the north, the fortress, the academy of sciences, and the academy of arts, arrest the eye: on the opposite side, are seen the imperial palace, the admiralty, the houses of many of the nobles, and the English line, occupied chiefly by English merchants. The quay, stretching along the south side for three miles, except where it is interrupted by the admiralty, the wall, parapet, and pavement of hewn granite, which, for that space, form the embankment of the river, and the canals of Katarina and Fontanka, add greatly to the impressiveness of the scene, and to the beauty of the city.

St. Petersburgh by no means possesses physical advantages corresponding to those it enjoys of a political and commercial nature. The wish of its founder, Peter the Great, to approach as nearly as possible to the civilisation, the wealth, and the politics of Europe, induced him to overlook its low and swampy situation, and the inclemency of its climate, which is more severe than that of any other place in Europe under the same latitude. On an average of ten years, it is calculated, that there are annually 97 bright days, 104 rainy, 72 of snow, and 93 unsettled and changeable. The storms are frequent and violent. The greatest heat experienced during the latter sixty years of the eighteenth century, was 27°, and the greatest cold 33°, of Reaumur. Intense frost,

however, appears to be neither unhealthy nor very inconvenient; for, while it lasts, the air is extremely pure and bracing, and its severity is guarded against by warm clothing and double windows in the houses, with the joints and interstices calked. The spring is very short: the ice of the Neva never breaks up before the 25th of March, nor later than the 27th of April. The earliest time of its freezing, is the 20th of October; the latest, the 1st of December. It is not till May, however, that winter departs altogether; then the scene suddenly changes, and in a very few days after the disappearance of the snow and frost, the fields and the trees are green. The summer, in general, is as mild and agreeable as in the south of France, but much more variable, owing to the great abundance of rain and moisture; it is also very short. To it succeeds the most unpleasant season of the year, in no respect resembling the delightful autumns of most of the other countries of Europe. Dark, heavy clouds conceal the sun for several weeks; incessant rains render the streets almost impassable; and storms frequently occur.

The population of St. Petersburgh amounted, according to a survey made in 1817, to 285,000 souls: of these, it was computed that 55,000 were connected, directly or indirectly, with the land and sea service, and 25,000 were foreigners. The average numbers of inhabitants between 1764 and 1780, are supposed to have been 164,000; between 1775 and 1780, 174,778. In the year 1784, when a census was taken, the population was 192,846; and in the year 1789, 217,948. St. Petersburgh may, therefore, be regarded as holding the sixth rank in respect to population among the European capitals; being inferior to

London, Paris, Naples, Vienna, and Constantinople, and rather surpassing Dublin and Amsterdam. Of the inhabitants, it is calculated that six-sevenths are Russians. There are far more Germans than any other foreigners. Of the Fins and Ingrians, the original population of the district in which St. Petersburgh stands, there are not more than 4000, and these are either servants in the city, or live in what are called the Finnish villages in the vicinity.

The tranquillity of the city and the security of property are protected by a well-organised police, the officers of which are a grand master, two inspectors, eleven presidents of quarters, with various other functionaries of an inferior class. Sentinels are stationed in each street, at the distance of 150 yards from each other. The officers of police are empowered to discharge other duties beside those which strictly belong to their character: they decide differences between masters and servants; in the spring, it is their peculiar province to superintend the breaking up of the ice on the Neva; the various hospitals are likewise under their superintendance, and strangers are particularly under their cognizance. Every stranger, on his arrival, must deliver his passport at the principal police-office, and must, besides, publish his arrival three separate times in the public papers: a similar process is indispensably necessary on his departure.

St. Petersburgh, with respect to its civil constitution and character, may be said to consist of two distinct parts; as the residence of the court and of those who are connected with it, and as the principal seat of trade and commerce in the empire. Every inhabitant who carries on trade must be a burgher, and have his name registered in the burghers' book;

he thus acquires an unlimited freedom of trade. All whose names are in the burghers' books, are either townsmen who have property within the city, or members of a guild. There are three guilds. Those belonging to the first, must possess from 10,000 to 50,000 rubles: these may follow foreign trades, are not liable to corporal punishment, and may drive about the city in a carriage drawn by two horses. Such as possess from 5000 to 10,000 rubles, belong to the second guild; they are confined to inland trade. A capital from 1000 to 5000 rubles is requisite for admission into the third guild; these are shop-keepers, keepers of public-houses, &c. The burghers are not obliged to serve in the army, but they must find a substitute. All whose capital exceeds 50,000 rubles, bankers of eminence, those who belong to the learned professions, &c., possess privileges nearly similar to those of the first guild: so do foreigners who enrol themselves in the city register, on account of their commercial affairs. Such are the classes of citizens who form the corporation. They meet once every third year, to choose officers, &c. At these assemblies, every member has a voice, and is eligible, unless under twenty-five years of age, and taxed at less than fifty rubles.

St. Petersburgh excels in no species of manufacture: indeed, many of the simplest articles, such as cotton, hardware, and pottery, are annually imported. The shop-keepers, and even many of the native merchants, seldom keep any account-books, but reckon by a kind of machine with several rows of wires, upon which beads are strung. A knowledge of reading, writing, and figures, is, however, gradually extending itself among them. The flourishing and extensive nature of the commerce of this city forms a striking con-

trast to the poverty of its manufacturers. Its foreign trade is almost entirely carried on by the English. When the city was first built, its trade was in the hands of the Dutch. In the year 1703, the first ship arrived from Holland. On an average of fourteen years, from 1775 to 1790, it was annually visited by 770 ships of various nations, chiefly English. At present, from 1,000 to 1,700 ships enter the Neva every year; of these, not above a twentieth part are Russian. The commerce of St. Petersburgh arises from its being the only great maritime outlet in the Gulf of Finland, and from its vast and various communications with the interior of the empire. The principal imports are, English manufactures and colonial produce; the wines, fruit, and oils of the south of Europe; the fine linens of Holland and Silesia; and the silks, watches, toys, &c. of France. The exports consist, chiefly, of the staple commodities of the empire, iron, hemp, potash, flax, tallow, sail-cloth, cordage, hogs' bristles, furs, tars, isinglass, &c.

Russia is celebrated for its internal navigation. Of this, the grandest branch is that which brings to St. Petersburgh the produce of the southern provinces, by means of the canals of Ladoga and Vyshnei Voloshok, which unite the Baltic and the Caspian: goods are thus conveyed to the capital through a tract of 1,434 miles, without once landing them. This navigation begins at St. Petersburgh, by the Neva, which issues from Lake Ladoga. By a canal uniting the Volchof, which falls into the same lake, with the Tvertza, which falls into the Volga, the communication between the Baltic and the Caspian is effected. The canals of Ladoga and Vyshnei Voloshok likewise enable St. Petersburgh to receive the produce of China and Siberia, almost entirely by

inland navigation. The distance from St. Petersburgh to the frontiers of China, is from 1,600 to 1,700 leagues; and it requires three years to accomplish it, the rivers being navigable only during a short period of the year. The route to the Volga from the capital, has been already described. This river is descended as far as the Kama, which is ascended to the mouth of one of the streams that flow from the Uralian mountains. At the foot of these, the merchandise is unloaded and transported over land, to be embarked on one of the streams that flow from the eastern side of the mountains, and communicate with the Tobol. At Tobolsk, the Irtish is entered, by means of which, the Oby, some other streams, and a short portage, the Lake Baikal is reached; and, finally, the Selenga and Mongolia, which communicate with China. The communication between St. Petersburgh and Siberia is, of course, carried on by the same route. The chief articles for the Chinese market are furs: the returns are teas, silks, &c. From Siberia, St. Petersburgh receives large quantities of iron and hardware; in return for which she sends principally English goods and colonial produce. The trade of the interior would be much more extensive and flourishing than it actually is, were it not by law secured to the natives; but this restriction is beginning to be relaxed.

Such is the commercial state of St. Petersburgh. The capital is also the seat of the directing synod which is the head of the Greek Church. A patriarch, with great and undefined powers, was formerly at the head of the Russian clergy; this dignity was abolished by Peter I., in 1719, when he assumed the chief ecclesiastical authority in the sacred synod.

The Emperor, however, is, in fact, the head of the Church, for each member of the synod must take an oath, acknowledging him to be their supreme judge; he is, moreover, president of the synod. The vice-president is generally the metropolitan archbishop; there are, besides, a number of counsellors and assessors. The Russian clergy are either regular or secular. The higher clergy are all monks, who are not permitted to marry: no parish-priest, on the contrary, can be ordained before he is married. Mr. Coxe remarks, (and the remark is still applicable,) that persons of the sacred profession are seldom seen at the tables of the nobility or gentry. During the five years that he passed at St. Petersburgh, though in almost constant intercourse with them, he never saw at their table an ecclesiastic. "It must be allowed," he adds, "that the parish-priests are, for the most part, too low and ignorant to be qualified for admission into genteel society, while the dignitaries, being a separate order, and restrained by several strict regulations, reside chiefly in their palaces, within their monasteries." All the clergy wear long beards and long hair, falling over their shoulders, a square bonnet, and a long robe. There are thirty-three archbishoprics and bishoprics. Formerly, the monasteries possessed immense estates, but Catherine II. annexed them to the crown, and assigned 1,000*l.* or 1,200*l.* a-year to the bishops and archbishops. The parish-priests are very poor; a wooden house, a small portion of land, and from 10*l.* to 20*l.* constitute all that they receive.

St. Petersburgh is also the seat of Government, which, our readers do not require to be informed, is an unlimited monarchy. This was expressly declared by the Empress Catherine II., in her instructions

for the code-commissioners. One consequence of this absolute power is, that in Russia, as in the Oriental governments, there is scarcely any distinction of ranks among the nobility, except what is derived from the service of the sovereign. By a regulation of Catherine II., in 1785, the nobles are divided into six classes, which, however, form but one single corps: these are, the real nobles, who can trace their nobility back a century; the military nobility; the eight-class nobility, or those belonging to the first eight degrees of rank; foreigners, or those descended from noble foreign families; families honoured with titles, such as prince, count, baron; and the ancient noble races, whose nobility is undoubted, though its origin is covered with obscurity. The nobility of the empire is very numerous and daily increasing by descent, service, foreign diplomas, &c. Their principal privileges are, the possession of landed estates, the liberty to erect distilleries, and exemption from taxation; they can impose taxes, and inflict corporal punishment short of death on their vassals. The grand-chancellor is the first officer of state; next to him rank the ministers for foreign affairs, finances, war, the marine, the interior, public instruction, divine worship, and police. These, with thirty-five other members, constitute a supreme council, whose powers extend over all public offices. There are two senates, one at Petersburgh, the other at Moscow: the members are chosen by the emperor, whose voice alone they speak.

The nature of the soil in the vicinity of St. Petersburgh is so very poor and unproductive, that this circumstance, joined to the severity of the climate, must always render this capital dependent, for its supply of provisions of all descriptions, on distant

parts of the empire, to a greater degree than any other capital of Europe; the regular demand, however, here, as every where else, is found to create and secure a regular supply. The countries bordering on the Volga chiefly furnish wheat and rye. The poorer classes eat a species of rye-bread called black bread, made from the meal unbolted. The disorder which so frequently occurs in France from eating bread made of damaged rye, seems not to be known in Russia. Barley-meal is also used for bread. Of wheat, rye, and barley, upwards of 4,800,000 poods are annually consumed. In order to afford the poorer classes flour at a moderate price, Catherine II. erected a large flour-magazine, from which they are supplied in times of scarcity. St. Petersburgh is well supplied with water, from the Neva and the canals; but pipes for conducting it being unknown, it is brought to the houses in casks fixed on carts. It is calculated, that (except during the fast of the Greek Church) more meat is consumed in this city than in any other city of Europe. The supplies are brought from a great distance, principally from the Ukraine; but the largest and best-flavoured veal comes from the vicinity of Archangel. All kinds of meat, poultry, &c., are brought frozen in winter; and the quality, as well as the quantity and price, is regulated by the weather and the hardness or softness of the sledge roads. The market held upon the Neva, is thus described by Mr. Coxe. "At the conclusion of the long fast, which closes on the 14th of December (O.S.), the Russians lay in their provisions for the remaining part of the winter. For this purpose, an annual market, which lasts three days, is held upon the river, near the fortress. A long street, above a mile in length, was lined on each side with

an immense store of provisions, sufficient for the supply of this capital for the three following months. Many thousand raw carcasses of oxen, sheep, hogs, pigs, together with geese, fowls, and every species of frozen food, were exposed to sale. The larger quadrupeds were grouped in various circles, upright, their hind legs fixed in the snow, with their heads and fore legs turned to each other. these towered above the rest, and occupied the hindermost row. Next to them succeeded a regular series of animals, descending gradually to the smallest, intermixed with poultry and game, hanging in festoons, and garnished with heaps of butter, fish, and eggs. I soon perceived, from the profusion of partridges, pheasants, moor-fowls, and cocks of the wood, that there were no laws in this country which prohibited the selling of game. I observed also the truth of what has been frequently asserted, that many of the birds, as well as several animals, in these northern regions, become white in winter, many hundred black cocks being changed to that colour; and some which had been taken before they had completed their metamorphosis, exhibited a mixture of black and white plumage. The most distant quarters contributed to supply this vast store of provisions; and the finest veal had been sent by land carriage as far as from Archangel, which is situated at the distance of 830 miles from St. Petersburgh; yet, every species of food is surprisingly cheap. In order to render this frozen food fit for dressing, it is first thawed in cold water. Frozen meat, however, certainly loses much of its flavour, and accordingly, the tables of persons of condition, and those of the English merchants, are supplied with fresh-killed meat."

The same writer gives a lively picture of a dinner

given by a nobleman in St. Petersburgh, which may be cited as exhibiting the various and distant sources from which the articles are drawn, and as a much fairer picture of the convivial manners of the nobility, than the more recent works of Drs. Clarke and Lyall present. After informing us that the Russian nobility of St. Petersburgh are, not less than those of Moscow, distinguished for their hospitality to foreigners, he proceeds:—"The tables are served with great profusion and taste. Though the Russians have adopted the delicacies of French cookery, yet, they neither affect to despise their native dishes, nor squeamishly reject the solid joints which characterise our repasts. The plainest, as well as the choicest viands were collected from the most distant quarters. I have frequently seen, at the same time, sterlet from the Volga, veal from Archangel, mutton from Astrakan, beef from the Ukraine, and pheasants from Hungary and Bohemia. Their common wines are chiefly claret, burgundy, and champagne; and I never tasted English beer and porter in greater perfection and abundance. Before dinner, even in the houses of persons of the first distinction, a small table is spread in a corner of the drawing-room, covered with plates of caviare, dried and pickled herrings, smoked ham or tongue, bread, butter, and cheese, together with bottles of different liqueurs; and few of the company, of either sex, omitted a prelude of this kind to the main entertainment. This practice has induced many travellers to relate, that the Russians swallow bowls of brandy before dinner. What are the usages of the vulgar in this particular, I cannot determine; but, among the nobility, I never observed the least violation of the most extreme sobriety."

The most common food of the lower classes, besides the black rye-bread, consists of frozen and dried fish, chiefly a very small kind, not unlike the white bait so highly relished by the London epicures. Besides these and sterlet, St. Petersburgh is supplied with salted beluga and sturgeon; salmon from the Neva and from Riga; cray-fish from the Neva and the Volga; and the ordinary kinds of fish from the Ladoga Lake. Vegetables are abundant: of these, cucumbers are consumed in immense numbers. The Ukraine and the districts near the Volga and Okha, send fruit of various kinds; but apples are principally brought from Rostock and Stettin. *Kvass*, a fermented liquor, somewhat acidulous, made by pouring warm water on rye or barley meal, is the common drink of the lower orders: this is often improved by the juice of the cranberry. A liquor made from honey and pepper boiled in water, is sold about the streets, and much drunk by the lower classes: mead, beer, and brandy, or whiskey distilled from malt, are also favourite liquors with them.

The extreme severity and rigour of the winter creates necessarily a large and urgent demand for fuel; but no other kind is used than wood; and as the immediate vicinity does not afford a sufficient supply, about 150,000 fathoms, chiefly birch, are annually brought in from other parts of the country, principally by water. Besides this, the barges which come down the rivers and canals, never return, but are broken up and employed either to construct wooden houses, or as firing. Magazines for billets, similar to the flour magazines, have been erected by Government for the accommodation of the poor in severe winters when fuel is scarce and dear.

The old national dress of Russia is still to be seen

among the lower orders in the capital. It consists of a long coat reaching to the calves of the legs, fitting close to the body, with a great number of tucks at the bottom of the waist, and lapping over the bosom like the English double-breasted coats. In a sash tied round the middle, the Russian puts his gloves, whip, axe, &c. He wears a vest of coloured, striped linen, instead of a shirt; his neck is bare; he wears wide trousers, no stockings; but his legs are wrapped up in linen cloth, and thin boots: when he does wear shoes, they are made of the bark of the linden-tree, or leather. A deep hat with a narrow brim completes his dress. In winter, a cap takes the place of a hat, and a sheep-skin pelisse that of a coat. The women of this class are not so well protected against the cold as the men; but they do not often quit the house. Even those in humble circumstances wear a great number and variety of trinkets, gold chains, ear-rings, pearls, and rings. The accounts given by travellers respecting the cleanliness of the Russians, are very contradictory. The truth seems to be, as Storch remarks in his "Picture of Petersburgh," that "the Russian has no care about cleanliness; but fortunately, a few old national customs, which, from long habit, he cannot get rid of, keep him in a tolerably decent middle way. Thus, for example, in all the cottages, the tables are always scoured white, but the boor gives himself no concern about vermin, or rather spares them from hereditary respect. Though he washes his body twice, or perhaps thrice a week, yet, his linen, be it ever so foul, he takes off only in the bathing-room, where it is washed at the same time with himself."

Those travellers who represent the Russians as naturally a cleanly people, seem to have founded

their opinion chiefly on the number of baths in every part of the empire, and the regular and favourite use made of them by all classes of people. In St. Petersburgh, the bathing-houses are very numerous, and are among the places of resort for the lower orders: they are usually situated by the side of the river or canal. The following account of their vapour-baths was communicated to Mr. Coxe by an English gentleman at St. Petersburgh, who was ordered to bathe for his health. "The bathing-room was small and low, and contained a heap of large stones piled over a fire, and two broad benches, one near the ground, and the other near the ceiling. Small buckets of water being occasionally thrown upon the heated stones, filled the room with a hot and suffocating vapour, which, from its tendency to ascend, rendered the upper part much hotter than the lower. Having taken off my clothes, I laid myself down upon the highest bench, while the bathing woman was preparing tubs of hot and cold water, and continued to increase the vapour in the manner above mentioned. Having dipped a branch of twigs into the hot water, she repeatedly sprinkled, and then rubbed with it my whole body. In about half an hour, I removed to the lower bench, which I found much cooler, where the bathing woman lathered me from head to foot with soap, scrubbed me with flannel for the space of ten minutes; and throwing several buckets of warm water over me, till the soap was entirely washed off, she then dried me with napkins. As I put on my clothes in a room without a fire, I had an opportunity of remarking, that the cold air had little effect on my body, though in so heated a state; for, while I was dressing, I felt a glow of warmth, which continued during the whole night. This circumstance convinced

me, that, when the natives rush from the vapour-baths into the river, or even roll in the snow, their sensations are in no respect disagreeable, nor the effects in any degree unwholesome."

The Russians use the bath as a means of preserving cleanliness and health, as a luxury, and as an amusement. The other most characteristic and favourite amusements in St. Petersburgh, are, singing, dancing, swinging, and descending the ice-hills. All the Russians are fond of music, and they possess many airs of exquisite simplicity and pathos; not inferior in these respects to the old national airs of Scotland or Ireland, though peculiar, and with a very marked character. In every town and village, these popular ditties are sung by the lower classes; and the higher ranks in St. Petersburgh make it a customary recreation, to take with them, in their water parties, a band of expert singers, and often have them at their tables at home, to sing the popular Russian ballads. The old popular ballads are also sometimes sung to the *Golubetz*, a favourite national dance. This, like all dances of rude people, is pantomimic: the modest solicitations of the lover, and the affected coyness of the fair one, are exhibited by a variety of gestures and movements. The swing is the amusement of all ranks and conditions, and Easter witnesses it in its greatest perfection, swings being then set up in all the public squares. Another kind of holiday diversion is the ice-hills. A scaffold about thirty feet high, is erected on the Neva: on one side of it are steps, or a ladder, to ascend to the platform on the top; on the opposite side, a steep inclined plane, about four yards broad and thirty long, descends to the river; this is supported by strong poles, and its sides are protected by a parapet of planks. Large square blocks of ice,

about four inches thick, are laid upon the inclined plane, close to one another, and smoothed with the axe; they are then consolidated by water thrown over them. The snow is cleared away at the bottom of the plane for the length of two hundred yards and the breadth of four; and the sides of this course, as well as those of the scaffoldings, are ornamented and protected with firs and pines. Each person, provided with a little, low sledge, something like a butcher's tray, mounts the ladder, and glides with inconceivable rapidity down the inclined plane, poising his sledge as he goes down. The momentum thus acquired, carries him to a second hill, at the foot of which he alights, mounts again, and in the same manner glides down the other inclined plane of ice. The boys also amuse themselves in skating down these hills. Summer-hills, constructed in imitation of the ice-hills, also afford a favourite amusement to the inhabitants of St. Petersburgh, especially during their carnivals. These consist of a scaffold between thirty and forty feet high, with an inclined plane in front, flowers and boughs of trees sheltering the person in his descent: a small, narrow cart on four wheels is used instead of the sledge; below, there is a level stage of some hundred feet in length, along which he is carried by the impulse of his descent.* The winter is the season when the most characteristic amusements of the Russians may be witnessed, especially on the Neva. "Scarcely a day passed," says Mr. Coxe, "that I did not take my morning walk, or drive in a sledge on that river. Many carriages and sledges and numberless foot passengers perpetually crossing it, afford a constant suc-

* This amusement has been introduced at Paris, under the name of the Russian mountains.

cession of moving objects; and the ice is also covered with different groups of people, dispersed or gathered together, and variously employed as their fancy leads them. In one part, there are several long areas railed off for the purpose of skating; a little further is an enclosure, wherein a nobleman is training his horses, and teaching them the various evolutions of the ménage. In another part, the crowd are spectators of what is called a sledge-race. The course is an oblong space about the length of a mile, and sufficiently broad to turn the carriage. It can hardly be denominated a race, for there is only a single sledge, drawn by two horses, and the whole art of the driver consists in making the shaft-horse trot as fast as he can, while the other is pushed into a gallop."

Whenever a concourse of the lower orders is expected, the police are always at hand, prepared with a fire-engine. This seems a curious implement by which to keep a mob in order; but it is found by experience, that all the symptoms of an approaching quarrel or disturbance are immediately and effectually subdued by a shower from the fire-engine. If any petty offence has actually been committed, the culprit is generally whipped. There are three instruments for whipping in use in Russia; two of which resemble a cat-o'-nine tails, and the knout. The latter, besides being applied to petty offenders, is the first and preparatory punishment of felons. "One morning," says Mr. Coxe, "as I was casually strolling through the streets of St. Petersburgh, near the market-place, I observed a large crowd of people flocking to one particular spot. Upon inquiring of my Russian servant the cause of this concourse, he informed me, that the multitude was assembled in order to see a felon, who had been convicted of murder, receive the knout. Although I

naturally shudder at the very idea of being a spectator of the agonies of a fellow-creature, yet my curiosity overcame my feelings. With the assistance of my servant I penetrated through the crowd, and ascended the roof of a wooden house of one story, from whence I had a distinct view of the dreadful operation, which was already begun. The executioner held in his hand the knout. This instrument is a thong about the thickness of a crown piece, and about three-fourths of an inch broad, and rendered extremely hard by a peculiar kind of preparation: it is tied to a thick plaited whip, which is connected by means of an iron ring with a small piece of leather, that acts like a spring, and is fastened to a short wooden handle. The executioner, before every stroke, receded a few paces, and at the same time drew back the hand which held the knout; then, bounding forward, he applied the flat end of the thong with considerable force to the naked back of the criminal, in a perpendicular line, reaching six or seven inches from the collar towards the waist. He began by hitting the right shoulder, and continued his strokes parallel to each other quite to the left shoulder; nor ceased till he had inflicted 333 lashes, the number prescribed by the sentence. At the conclusion of this terrible operation, the nostrils of the criminal were torn with pincers,* his face marked with a hot iron, and he was reconducted to prison, in order to be transported to the mines of Nershinsk in Siberia." Mr. Coxe adds, that he has been thus particular in describing the punishment of the knout, because several authors have exaggerated it; but surely, it is scarcely possible to present a more frightful picture of its nature and

* This horrible part of the punishment has been abolished by an ukase dated Jan. 27, 1818.

effects than what he has himself given; especially when, in addition to the account in the text, we advert to a note on this passage, in which he informs us, that a skilful executioner, on receiving a private order, can dispatch the criminal by striking two or three blows upon the ribs.

The amusements of the middle and lower classes are always much more characteristic of national feelings and manners than those of the higher orders. On this account, we have dwelt at greater length on the public amusements of the great mass of the population in St. Petersburgh. Those of the higher classes consist in convivial clubs, of which there are a great number and variety; in frequenting the public walks and the gardens of the imperial palaces; in driving in sledges; and in attending the theatre. One of the most expensive necessaries for all who are not proprietors of estates, is attendance. In no capital of Europe is so great a number of domestic servants kept: in houses of quality, where they are all vassals, their numbers frequently exceed all belief. "The very same menial employments," Storch informs us, "for which in Germany one maid would be sufficient, in St. Petersburgh require at least three persons to perform. For almost every particular function, a peculiar servant must be kept." Only nobles, officers in the army, and persons holding places under Government with the rank of a staff-officer, can possess vassals, or have a right to buy them. When Storch published his "Picture of Petersburgh," about thirty years ago, the average price of a young fellow was 300, and that of a girl 100 rubles.

It has already been stated, that the Germans are much more numerous in St. Petersburgh, than any other foreigners: to them, the capital, as well as the

rest of the empire, was, till very lately, almost exclusively indebted for its progress in literature and science. The most valuable and extensive information on the geography, statistics, and natural history of almost every portion of this vast empire, was collected by the personal labour of Pallas and his associates, who were patronised by Catherine II.; and to the German men of science, the institutions in the metropolis owe the high character they have obtained throughout Europe by their proceedings and publications. The Academy of Sciences, which boasts of the names of the Bernouilles and Eüler among its supporters, contains many objects which naturally draw the attention of all men of science who visit St. Petersburgh. In the library, there are some curious and important Slavonic MSS. of the twelfth, thirteenth, fourteenth, and subsequent centuries. Of these, the most valuable are, the Chronicle of Nestor, the father of Russian history; the first book printed in Russia, A.D. 1564;* and a larger quantity of Chinese books than is to be found in any other library in Europe.

The various branches of natural history are very rich, especially in native productions. Among these are, the *equus hemionus*, a kind of wild horse resembling a mule, found in Dauria and in the vast deserts of Tartary to the south of Russia; the wild ram, from the desert south of Lake Baikal; and the grunting ox of Pennant, the full and flowing tail of which, of a glossy and silky texture, is used as a fly-flap, to decorate the caps of the Chinese, and is the celebrated ornament of the Turkish standards: this animal inhabits Turkey and Tibet. The number and variety of fossil bones of the elephant, rhinoceros, buffalo, and

* A Slavonic Psalter, however, has been discovered, printed at Kiev in 1551.

mammoth, is very great. But, perhaps, the most interesting article in the natural history department, is the mass of native iron, weighing 1,656 lbs., which was discovered by Pallas in Siberia. There is also a very good collection of minerals, as well as a valuable anatomical cabinet, which was prepared originally by a celebrated anatomist of the Hague. The chief attraction, however, of the rooms of the academy, is, the collection of the costumes of the nations inhabiting the more eastern districts of this vast empire, and of their antiquities. Among the former are specimens of the dress of the prophetic pagan priestesses called *chamaus*, consisting of a cap and horn of iron, and a mantle strung with rings, together with a large, deep-toned drum, from which, when the priestess fall into her trance of ecstacy, the most horrible combination of noises is produced. There are also dresses of the barbarous inhabitants of the Aleoutine Islands, and some Japanese habits and armour made of varnished leather and blue cloth. The ornaments that were found in the tombs of Siberia, some of which are of massive gold and of very elegant workmanship, are very numerous: these consist of bracelets, collars, vases, crowns, figures of animals richly carved in gold and silver, sabres with golden hilts, ornamented with precious stones, Tâtar idols, &c. The collection of Russian coins is valuable as throwing great light on the early part of the history of the country: for this purpose, they are ranged in nine chronological classes. The cabinet is also rich in earlier coins. Among the Indian pieces, are the twelve rupees, representing the twelve signs of the zodiac, coined by order of Queen Nourmahal, whose history, as related in the Travels of Tavernier, has more the air of

an Eastern tale than of a veritable narrative.* These rupees are so extremely rare, that the original possessor of the cabinet is said to have given for them 1,000 crowns, In a detached building is placed a celestial sphere, eleven feet in diameter, the inside of which represents the visible surface of the heavens; and being turned by a curious piece of mechanism, it exhibits the motions of the celestial bodies in the meridian of St. Petersburgh. The original sphere, which was made at Gottorp, was burnt. The carriage of it to St. Petersburgh was attended with great expense and labour. To Riga, it was conducted over

* Queen Nour-mahal (*i. e.* the light of the seraglio) was the sultana of one of the Mohammedan sovereigns of India, named Sultan Selim, otherwise called Jehanghir Pasha, the father of Shah Jehan, and grandfather of Aurungzeb. "This queen being altogether ambitious, made it her business to please the king, that she might the more easily accomplish her designs; and having a great desire to eternise her memory, she could not think of a better way than to coin a good quantity of money in her name, and of a different stamp from that which the Indian kings were wont to coin. . . . One day that the king was extremely well pleased, and, having drunk briskly, began to be merry, after that the queen had danced in his presence, he took her, and set her by him, protesting that he loved her above all the princesses in his court." On this, we are told, the queen, who had watched her opportunity, requested that the king would grant her one favour, which she had passionately desired a long time, that she might reign as sovereign for twenty-four hours. This bold request surprised the monarch; but at length, unwilling to deny her any thing, he consented to retire for that time on a given day; of which the queen availed herself, having got every thing in readiness, to have coined and issued an immense quantity of gold and silver rupees, bearing the signs of the zodiac on one side, and the name of Jehanghir, together with her own, and the name of the place where they were coined, in Arabic letters, on the other. Shah Jehan, however, the succeeding monarch, called in these rupees, and had them melted down, forbidding their circulation on pain of death. — TAVERNIER, part ii. p. 10.

the snow on rollers and sledges, the forests in many places having been cleared: from Riga, it was sent to the capital by sea. The present sphere was constructed on the iron carcase of the original one.

There are two seminaries for the education of the nobility; one for males, called *Corps de Cadets;* and the other for females, called the *Couvent des Demoiselles Nobles.* The latter presents a most interesting sight, especially at the public examinations which are held every three years. There are two separate establishments in this convent; one for the education of 260 girls, daughters of the *bourgeois,* and the other for the daughters of the nobility. In the course of nine years, to which the period of education extends, they are taught French, German, and Russian, the history of their native country, music, singing, dancing, writing, arithmetic, and geometry. There are many other institutions of the same kind in St. Petersburgh;—a deaf and dumb asylum, an asylum for orphans and widows, and a school where girls and boys are educated for the theatre.

The hospitals are numerous, and, in general, well planned and regulated. Besides two large ones for the army and navy, there is a public hospital, in which the most laudable attention is paid to the cleanliness and comfort of the patients: the bedsteads are of iron; the apartments well ventilated; and each of these is under the care of widows from the military asylum. The Foundling Hospital, though inferior to that of Moscow, is very large and well managed. When Mr. James visited it in 1813, the number of children on the list was about 6,000, of whom 600 were kept in the house. Connected with this is a lying-in house. The Lombard Bank is an establishment also connected with the Foundling Hospital: it is similar, in its design

and arrangement, to the *Mont de Piété* at Paris. The Loan Bank, for the nobility and the corporation, is, however, of a more uncommon character and design: it was instituted by Catherine II., and lends on real estates, which in Russia are estimated by the number of peasants. Of course, by the census and the price of slaves, the value of an estate can readily and effectually be ascertained. The loan is for twenty-years, at five per cent interest, and three per cent is paid as a sinking fund; no sum under 1,000 rubles is lent. With the bank is connected a deposite-fund.

The prisons have recently undergone important improvements, and are now under the philanthropic inspection of a prison society, which enjoys the imperial sanction. The late Walter Venning, Esq., whose memory will long be revered throughout the Russian empire, was the instrument of originating this admirable institution. An early member of the committee of the London Society for the Improvement of Prison Discipline, on his arrival in St. Petersburgh, in 1817, he immediately devoted himself with indefatigable zeal to the same benevolent object. "With the highest permission, he examined the prisons, houses of correction, and poor-houses, in St. Petersburgh, Tver, and Moscow. Many reforms and improvements were made, according to his suggestion, and a particular attention was thereby excited towards this department." * He presented a memorial to the Emperor Alexander, forcibly pointing out the great national advantages which would result from the improvement of prison discipline; in consequence of which, his imperial majesty was pleased

* Address of his Excellency Prince Galitzin, at the annual meeting of the St. Petersburgh Prison Society, January 27, 1821. See Third Report of the London Committee (1821), p. 175.

to give his sanction, in July 1819, to the formation of a *Tutel* Society for the prisons of the capital, at the head of which, as of every patriotic and benevolent undertaking, stands the name of the excellent Prince Galitzin. The example of Mrs. Fry in this country, has led also to the formation of a Ladies' Committee; and five prisons (viz. the city prison, the government-hall, the police prison, the house of correction, and the work-house,) are placed under their care.* In the following year, an Auxiliary Prison Society was established at Cronstadt, likewise under imperial patronage, in consequence of Mr. Venning's exertions. Towards the close of January 1821, an attack of typhus fever, caught from a prisoner, terminated the earthly career of this admirable man. A simple monument has been erected over his remains, bearing an appropriate inscription in Russ and English;† and thus in the words of Prince Galitzin, "while Russia has to shew, near one frontier, the ashes of his countrymen," who, about thirty years before, fell a victim to his philanthropy, at another extremity of that vast empire, "she here presents, in the capital

* In one letter, Mr. Venning says: "The Princess Mestchersky leaves the Taurida palace every day, to read a portion of the Scriptures to the female prisoners, and to see that they are all employed."—Third Report, &c. p. 168.

† On the principal side, a bas-relief represents Mr. Venning entering a prison, with a Bible in his hand; under it, in Russ and English, are inscribed, "I was sick, and he visited me: I was in prison, and he came unto me."—"I heard a voice from Heaven, saying unto me, Write, blessed are the dead who die in the Lord," &c. On the reverse side, in Russ only, is the following inscription:—"The Society of St. Petersburgh for the Improvement of Prisons have raised this monument to the memory of their beloved fellow-labourer, Walter Venning, countryman of Howard, and founder of the Prison Institutions of this country. He was born in November 1781, and died in the Lord Jesus Christ, on the 16th of January, 1821."

the monument of a second Howard." Since Mr. Venning's death, the exertions of the Prison Society of St. Petersburgh have been continued with zeal and activity; and auxiliary societies have been formed, under the auspices of the Government, at Archangel, Vologda, and Orel. "Religious services are now established, with the means of instruction; food and clothing are provided, with medical attendance for the sick; and cleanliness is especially regarded. A new gaol is in progress in the capital, from which it is expected much benefit will result, by the increased attention which has been paid to classification and inspection in its internal arrangements."*

Among the public institutions of St. Petersburgh, the Russian Bible Society also claims distinct notice. This institution was formed, agreeably to an imperial ukase, on the 23d of January, 1813, in the house of Prince Galitzin, then Minister of Religion for the empire. During the twelve years that the society has existed, the committee have completed large editions of the whole Bible in ancient Greek and

* Sixth Report of the Society for the Improvement of Prison Discipline, p. 81. From a document in the Appendix to this valuable Report, it appears, that the number of prisoners committed to the town prison in the year 1823, was 1657, of whom 402 were debtors; the number released in that year was 1628; remaining in prison, 411. Of 441 debtors, 294 were released through the medium of the prison society. The average number of sick had decreased one-half within three years. The exertions of this society had been conspicuous in relieving the distresses of convicts on their journey to Siberia. In the Fifth Report of the London Society (1823), it is stated, that, in the preceding year, 7,000 convicts had passed through the city of Orel, on the frontiers of Siberia, who had partaken, more or less, of the bounty of the St. Petersburgh Society, in clothing, food, and medical attendance. The Archbishop of Orel had distinguished himself by the earnestness of his endeavours to alleviate the wretchedness of the prisoners.

German, and, for the first time, of the New Testament and the Book of Psalms in the vernacular language of Russia. The four Gospels and the Book of Acts have also been printed in the Mongolian and Calmuc dialects; the whole New Testament has been translated, under the sanction of the ecclesiastical authorities of Bessarabia, into Bulgarian; and an edition of the Gospel of St. Matthew has been undertaken in the Zirian language, a dialect spoken in the Governments of Tobolsk, Perm, and Vologda.

The most solemn and magnificent ceremonies of the Greek church may be witnessed at St. Petersburgh, with every preparatory and attendant circumstance that can add to their effect. Fasting is so prominent and essential a doctrine of this church, as to have given rise to the satirical remark, *Que les Russes ne savent prendre le ciel que par famine.* At Lent, they fast seven weeks; the same period from the first week after the Pentecost to St. John the Baptist; then again, fourteen days before the Assumption; and forty days before Christmas. At Easter, a ceremony is performed, peculiar to this church, which is certainly not surpassed by the most striking and imposing spectacle ever invented. A representation of the sacred tomb is exposed to the people during the evening; and at night, the resurrection is announced in all the churches throughout the empire. Mr. James, who witnessed this extraordinary spectacle in 1814, gives the following account of it: "We entered the Casan church at a late hour. The nave, the aisles, in short, every part was crowded to suffocation with a host of devotees: thousands of lighted tapers (for each bore one in his hand) glittered over the whole area, spreading an illumination as bright as noon. As the hour of twelve approached, all eyes were earnestly bent on

the sanctuary, and a dead silence reigned throughout. At length, the door opened, when there issued forth a long train of banners, crosses, &c., with archimandrites, protopopes, and priests of all ranks, dressed in their sumptuous robes of embroidered silk, and covered with gold and silver, and jewels: they moved slowly through the crowd, and went out from the doors of the church, as if to search for the body of our Lord. In a few minutes, the insignia were again seen on their return, floating above the heads of the mob, along the nave; and when the archbishop had regained the altar, he pronounced with a loud voice, *Christos volseress*, Christ is risen. At that instant, the hymn of praise commenced, and a peal of ordnance from the fortress re-echoed the joyful tidings through the city. The mob now saluted and congratulated one another in turn, for the days of fasting were at an end: tables spread with provisions in a short time made their appearance in the church; the forbidden meats were tasted with eager appetite; and a feast of gluttony, that annually proves fatal to some of the followers of this religion, took place of penance and prayer."*

The same Traveller notices another religious ceremony which he witnessed at St. Petersburgh. "In the fervency of that ostentatious gratitude that characterises the Russian Church, the verdure, when it first appears in spring, annually receives a solemn benediction. The places of worship, as well as private houses, are filled with the consecrated boughs borne by the devotees; and, on the first Sunday after Ascension-day, the same priests who poured their blessing on the frozen water in the winter, hail with similar ceremonies the summer

* Tour through Germany, &c. vol. ii. p. 82.

vegetation." A procession takes place on this day, as well as on the first of May, (which is kept as a *fête* throughout the North,) to Ekatherinoff. Hither, the court, all the gay world, and all who can hire a carriage of any description, repair to hail the first burst of the genial season: sometimes, above 2,000 carriages make their appearance in the procession.

Mr. Coxe was present at the celebration of the singular rite above referred to,—the blessing of the waters, which used to be performed upon the Neva with great pomp and solemnity, the sovereign attending in person upon the ice, and all the regiments of guards being drawn out on the occasion. Its pomp, though still splendid, is now much diminished. "Upon the frozen surface of a small canal, between the admiralty and the palace, was erected an octagon pavilion of wood, painted green, and ornamented with boughs of fir: it was open at the sides, and crowned with a dome supported by eight pillars. On the top was the figure of St. John with the cross, and four paintings representing some of the miracles of our Saviour: in the inside, a carved image of the Holy Spirit, under the emblem of a dove, was suspended, as is usual in the sanctuaries of the Greek churches. The floor of this edifice was carpeted, excepting a square vacancy in the middle, in which an opening was cut in the ice, and a ladder let down into the water. The pavilion was enclosed by palisadoes, adorned with boughs of fir, and the intermediate space was also covered with carpets. From one of the windows of the palace a scaffolding was erected, ornamented with red cloth, which reached to the extremity of the canal. At the time appointed, the empress appeared at the window of the palace; and the archbishop, who was to perform the benediction, passed at the head of a numerous

procession along the scaffolding into the octagon, round which were drawn up a few soldiers of each regiment quartered at St. Petersburgh. After having pronounced a few prayers, he descended the ladder, plunged the cross into the water, and then sprinkled the colours of each regiment. At the conclusion of this ceremony, the archbishop retired; and the people rushed in crowds into the octagon, drank with eagerness the water, sprinkled it upon their clothes, and carried some of it away for the purpose of purifying their houses. I was informed," adds Mr. Coxe, "that some of the populace plunged into the water, and that others dipped their children into it; but, as I was not myself witness to these circumstances, I cannot vouch for their truth."

Among the magnificent wonders of this splendid capital, the annals of the reign of Catherine II. make mention of one ephemeral palace, which, like, that of Pandæmonium,

> "— Out of the earth, a fabric huge,
> Rose like an exhalation;"

and like an exhalation vanished, not leaving a wreck behind. From a true and particular account of this ice palace, drawn up by Kraft, an imperial academician, and published at St. Petersburgh the year after its erection, it appears, that seven years before, an ice castle had been built upon the river Neva; but the ice bent under the weight of the edifice and of the soldiers who garrisoned it. To avoid a similar defect in the foundation, it was resolved, on the occasion of the marriage of Prince Galitzin, in 1740, to erect a palace of ice on *terra firma;* and a site was chosen between the imperial winter palace and the admiralty, one of the lords of the bed-chamber being appointed to

superintend the works. The palace was constructed of blocks of ice, from two to three feet thick, cut out of the winter covering of the Neva; these being properly adjusted, water was poured between them, which acted as a cement, consolidating the whole into one immense mass of ice. The length of the edifice was fifty-six feet, its breadth seventeen and a half, and its height twenty-one. "It was constructed according to the strictest rules of art; and was adorned with a portico, columns, and statues. It consisted of a single story, the front of which was provided with a door and fourteen windows; the frames of the latter, as well as the panes, being all formed of ice. The sides of the doors and of the windows were painted in imitation of green marble. On each side of the door was a dolphin, from the mouths of which, by means of naphtha, volumes of flames were emitted in the evening. Next to them were two mortars, equal to eighty-pounders, from which many bombs were thrown, a quarter of a pound of powder being used for each charge. On each side of the mortars stood three cannons, equal to three-pounders, mounted upon carriages, and with wheels, which were often used. In the presence of a number of persons attached to the court, a bullet was driven through a board two inches thick, at the distance of sixty paces, by one of these cannon, a quarter of a pound of powder being also used for a charge. The interior of the edifice had no ceiling, and consisted of a lobby and two large apartments, one on each side, which were well furnished, and painted in the most elegant manner, though formed merely of ice. Tables, chairs, statues, looking-glasses, candlesticks, watches, and other ornaments, besides tea-dishes, tumblers, wine-glasses, and even plates with pro-

visions, were seen in one apartment, also formed of ice, and painted of their natural colours; while in the other were to be seen a state bed, with curtains, bed, pillows, and bed-clothes, two pairs of slippers, and two night-caps of the same cold material. Behind the cannon, the mortars, and the dolphins, stretched a low balustrade. On each side of the building was a small entrance. Here were pots with flowers and orange-trees, partly formed of ice, and partly natural, on which birds sat. Beyond these were erected two icy pyramids. On the right of one of them stood an elephant, which was hollow, and so contrived as to throw out burning naphtha; while a person within it, by means of a tube, imitated the natural cries of the animal. On the left of the other pyramid was seen the never-failing concomitant of all princely dwellings in Russia, a *banya*, or bath, apparently formed of balks, which is said to have been sometimes heated, and even to have been appropriated to use.

"The appearance of the ice palace, it is said, was remarkably splendid when lighted up in the evening with numerous candles. Amusing transparencies were usually suspended in the windows, to increase the effect; and the emission of flames by the dolphins and the elephant, all tended to excite greater surprise while the people beheld the crystalline mass."

Thus, there wanted not, to carry on the parallel between this palace and the magical edifice which Milton describes,

> "—— many a row
> Of starry lamps and blazing cressets, fed
> With naphtha and asphaltus, yielding light
> As from a sky. The hasty multitude
> Admiring entered; and the work some praise,
> And some the architect."

Crowds of visiters were continually seen around this fantastic and unique construction, which remained entire from the beginning of January almost to the middle of March. The glassy fabric then began to melt, and was soon afterwards broken into pieces, and the ruins were conveyed to the imperial ice-cellar.* On the wisdom displayed in the construction of this costly emblem of mundane glory, the reader may make his own comment.

Neither the design nor the limits of our work will allow of giving a detailed description of the various palaces and public buildings of St. Petersburgh. Both Sir John Carr and Sir Robert Ker Porter speak in rapturous terms of the enormous hall and winter garden of the Taurida palace. The former remarks, that an ancient pagan might here fancy himself transported into the banqueting-room of Jupiter. The latter describes it in the following terms. "Before you enter the hall or gallery of the palace, you pass through a saloon of great magnitude, which is supported by immense white pillars, and ornamented with ancient candelabrums, sarcophaguses, busts, vases, and other decorations of the classic ages. With these are mingled, in monstrous association, modern, ill-fashioned Cupids, negroes, fantastic heads, and hideous pedestals of fifty-coloured marbles. On leaving this enormous vestibule, the hall opens at once upon the eye, and excites an emotion which must be felt, to be imagined. I had not an opportunity of measuring this apparently measureless place, and therefore will not pretend to guess its dimen-

* Kraft's work contains two views of the interior, as well as one of the front of the palace. A copy of the latter is given by Dr. Lyall, in his Travels in Russia (vol. ii. p. 390), from which we have taken this account.

sions.* A double range of Ionic columns rise like a forest on either side, and when you look up to their capitals, the height is so great as almost to pain the eye. But there the sublimity of this gigantic chamber ceases. A poverty-stricken, flat ceiling, with little insignificant urns in a squeezed shape, finish most abruptly what might otherwise have been perfection. Had it been arched, the effect would have been unequalled in Europe. Between the pillars are placed statues, most of them modern and of indifferent merit. Some fine imitations of the Barberini and other celebrated vases, are mixed with them; and at each end of the gallery, at some distance from the wall, are excellent copies of the Laocoon and the Cleopatra. Through the long avenue of columns, opens to view a most delightful scene,—a spot dedicated to perpetual summer." The garden is described as very extensive; but the effect of extent is greatly aided by the winding and undulating walks, which are gravelled or neatly turfed, and lined with roses and other flowers, leading amid flowery hedges and fruit-trees, chiefly orange-trees of an enormous size, planted in tubs sunk into the earth, and concealed by fine mould. As the roof, from the size of the garden, could not be supported without pillars, these are disguised under the form of palm-trees.† The heat is maintained by concealed flues in the walls and pillars, and under the earth are conveyed

* Storch describes it in general terms, as "upwards of one hundred paces in length, and proportionably broad," but does not give us any idea of its height. Sir John Carr has given a sketch of the hall, which, Sir Robert says, gives a just idea of its appearance, and in which the columns are represented as between 80 and 90 feet high.

† So Storch says; but they do not appear in Sir John Carr's drawing.

leaden pipes filled with boiling water. The whole of the pavilion is lighted by lofty windows; and from the ceiling are suspended several magnificent lustres of the richest cut-glass. "Here," says Sir John, in his flowery style, "while the polar winter is raging without, covering the world with white, and hardening the earth to marble, when water tossed in the air drops down in ice, may be seen the foliage and inhaled the fragrance of an Arabian grove, in the soft and benign climate of an Italian spring. The novelty and voluptuous luxuriance of this green, refreshing spectacle, seen through the colonnade of massy white pillars, and reduplicated by vast mirrors, is matchless." *

In this palace, Prince Potemkin, soon after his return from the conquest of the Crimea, gave the most gorgeous and costly entertainment to his imperial mistress ever recorded since the days of Roman luxury,—and it was his last: he died shortly after. In this colossal hall, the walls of which were splendidly illuminated, were spread tables groaning with the delicacies of every region, and the most costly wines. A prodigious cistern of solid silver, containing sterlet soup, is said alone to have cost 10,000 rubles. The orchestra exceeded 600 vocal and instrumental performers; and the banquet was succeeded by a series of magnificent exhibitions, scenic and theatric, which lasted till midnight. In the centre of the pavilion, on a lofty pedestal, this splendid barbarian had

* Mr. James mentions also the hanging-gardens of the *Palais d'Hiver*, and those of Prince Gazarin, as true specimens of Russian luxury. These are "parterres open to the sky above, and warmed below by heated flues: they are generally raised on terraces to the level of the first or second story of the house, whither having mounted, the stranger, to his great surprise, finds himself ushered into shady walks, and trees, and groves."

caused to be erected a statue of his benefactress, cut in Carrara marble. This statue was turned out of the palace by her unhappy son. Instigated, probably, by the hatred he bore to the memory of Potemkin, Paul, in one of his "darkened hours," converted this palace into barracks, and the hall, pavilion, and saloon, into a riding-school for his troops!

We must now take leave of what Mr. James has perhaps justly pronounced "the fairest city of the world,"—in which the elegant symmetries of Grecian and Roman art are seen united with the gorgeous pride of the East. To him, its first appearance was peculiarly striking, as he approached it after travelling a wild, uncultivated country, in his way from Finland; but its effect, he says, "would be stupendous even without the aid of this contrast: it is a city of new-built palaces." The marble palace, the imperial winter residence, the admiralty (presenting the longest regular *façade* of any building in Europe, being more than a quarter of a mile in extent, with six porticoes), the Isaac place, one of the finest squares in Europe, with the equestrian statue of Peter the Great, the academy, the fortress, the gilded domes and spires of the various churches, and a thousand other sumptuous edifices, are seen rising on either side over the quays of granite, and lining the long perspective till it is almost lost in the distance. In the midst, the white surface of the Neva is seen spotted with a thousand moving figures. The infinite variety and gay costume of the Russian population,—the novel aspect of stout, majestic men, with solemn beards and placid countenances, who may be seen sliding down hills in go-carts, or whirled after one another in a round-about, or engaged in some religious procession, new even to those familiar with the pageants

of Roman Catholic countries, together with the strange physiognomy and various dress of individuals of the Asiatic tribes subject to Russia, who frequently visit the metropolis,—all concur to heighten the impression of wonder made on a stranger by the first view of this gorgeous capital, and prepare him to find in the inhabitants a people little assimilated to the rest of Europe. We reserve, however, a survey of the national manners and social character of the Russians for another place: to study them to advantage, the traveller must visit Moscow.

Within the distance of thirty miles from St. Petersburgh, there are several palaces belonging to the emperor; but they are merely large country-seats, with gardens in the English style, and present nothing particularly worthy of notice. The road from the capital to the palace of Peterhof, is situated at a small distance from the Gulf of Finland, and is almost entirely lined with the country seats of the nobility. Near that place is a curious *fabrique* for polishing precious stones, the machinery of which is moved by water: the stones are chiefly jasper and porphyry, brought from Siberia. The palace of Oranienbaum, which also is situated near the shore of the Gulf of Finland, about twenty-seven miles from St. Petersburgh, is worthy of notice as having been erected by Prince Mentchikof, the favourite of Peter the Great, while he was at the height of that power to which few favourites, even in Russia, or under the Asiatic despotisms, have ever attained. Schlussenburgh, about forty miles from the capital, is a fortress celebrated in Russian history for the number and rank of the state prisoners that have been confined in it. The road runs the whole way by the side of the Neva, the

banks of which are steep and high, and are studded with many villages and country-houses.

The place most worth visiting, however, in the vicinity of St. Petersburgh, is Cronstadt, a naval station, about ten leagues from the capital, in the island of Retuzari, in the Gulf of Finland, of which it forms a strong bulwark. There are two passages that lead to the mouth of the Neva, one on the north, the other on the south: the latter is the only passage by which ships of burden can approach the capital, and this is commanded on one side by Cronstadt, and on the other by Cronchlot, which stands on another island. Both these forts are strongly built and fortified. At Cronstadt are the arsenals and docks of the Russian navy. Machines called camels, similar to those employed at Amsterdam and Hamburgh, are used to float the ships built at St. Petersburgh over the bar at the mouth of the river. The oak used in building ships at Cronstadt, comes chiefly from the distant province of Casan, and is consequently very expensive. The harbour is very spacious, and consists of three divisions. The largest of these, called the Merchants' Harbour, will contain 600 sail, but is exposed, as well as the Middle Harbour, to the west wind. The War Harbour is of small size and depth: it is designed for ships of war which are on service or under repair; and adjoining it are the docks. The houses fronting the harbour, which are built of brick, stuccoed white, have a handsome appearance; and, together with the lofty and spacious magazines, inspire expectations which are not realised on entering the town: there we find ill-paved streets and houses for the most part of wood. The public buildings are, the imperial hospital for sailors, the civil hospital, the barracks, five

Russian churches, including the cathedral church of St. Andrew, a Lutheran, and an English church. The population is estimated at 40,000 males, of whom at least 10,000 are sailors. The greater part of the inhabitants are Russians, but there are also English, Germans, Dutch, Americans, and Finlanders. It stands in lat. 59° 59′ 26″ N.; long. 29° 49′ 30″ E.

Next to St. Petersburgh in commercial importance, with the exception perhaps of Odessa, is the city of

RIGA.

This place, the capital of Livonia, is situated in a large plain on the Dwina or Duna, about nine miles from the sea, in lat. 56° 5′ 1″ N., long. 24° 7′ 45″ E.; 285 miles W.S.W. of St. Petersburgh, and 235 S.S.E. of Stockholm. The provinces of Livonia and Esthonia were both conquered from the Swedes by Peter the Great. They are described by Mr. Coxe, who travelled through them in 1779, as by no means fertile, but well cultivated, producing grain, hemp, and flax, and favourable to the rearing of cattle. Narva, the first town of consequence in the route from the capital, is situated on the Narova, eight miles from its entrance into the Gulf of Finland, and 83 miles W.S.W. of St. Petersburgh. It has more the appearance of a German than of a Russian town. The houses are of brick, stuccoed white. The population is between 3 and 4,000. The principal exports are hemp, flax, timber, and corn. In the suburb of Ivangorod are the remains of an extensive fortress built by the Czar Ivan Vassilievitch, which overhangs the Narova in a very picturesque manner. Near this town, in 1700, Peter the Great was defeated by Charles XII.,

then only nineteen years old : the former commanded 32,000, the latter 9,000 men. Of the Russians, so many were taken prisoners, that only the officers were detained. In less than five years afterwards, Peter took Narva by assault.

Dorpt, 116 miles from Narva, suffered in a most dreadful manner during the wars between the Swedes and the Russians. This ancient town, situated on the river Embach, being in the high road to the capital, enjoys a considerable traffic. A university, with a large revenue, was established here in 1802; there are also a library, a museum, and a botanic garden. A great annual fair is held here. It stands in lat. 58° 22′ 45″ N., long.. 25° 28′ 9″ E. Between this place and Narva lies the lake Peipouss. Round Dorpt, the country is extremely fertile, so as to have been called the granary of the north. This fertile district stretches as far as Riga, which, however, is surrounded with deep, barren sands.

The situation of Riga is highly favourable for trade, as the Dwina is navigable as far as the N.E. part of Poland and the western provinces of Russia, and can receive ships of burthern close to the walls of the town. The exports are computed at a million sterling, of which full half are sent to England and Scotland. The merchants are chiefly foreigners,—English and Scotch houses. The article of export for which it is most celebrated, is masts. Persons called mast-brokers are sent into the Russian provinces bordering on the Dnieper, who mark the trees fit for the purpose, which are conveyed by that river, a short land carriage, and the Dwina. The hemp, another article of export, is brought from the Ukraine and Poland by the same route; but as the barges in which it is conveyed, of 250 or 300 tons, can pass

the Dwina only when it is deep, two years are employed in conveying the hemp to Riga. Over the Dwina, at this town, there is a floating wooden bridge, which rises and falls with the river: it is taken to pieces when the frost begins. The town stands on the right; the suburbs on the left bank of the river. Though the houses are generally of stone, and a number of them are neat, the town is far from handsome, the streets being narrow and crooked. The principal public buildings are, the town-house, the exchange, the house of assembly for the States of Livonia, the arsenal, the hospital of St. George, and the Katharinenhof. There are also a lyceum, an endowed high school, a public library, a cabinet of natural history, and a literary society. Though not regularly fortified, Riga is a place of some strength, being surrounded with an earthen mound and moat, and there is also a citadel. It has suffered at different times, both from fires and sieges. It was besieged by the Russians in 1656; by the Saxons and Poles in 1700; by the Russians in 1701; and by the French in 1812, when its suburbs were burned. The population is estimated at 36,000. The whole of Livonia is now comprehended in the Government of Riga, as Esthonia is included in the Government of Revel.

Sixteen miles beyond Riga, the traveller enters Courland, which was united to Russia in 1795; it was really under its influence long before. This province is fertile and well cultivated; its exports are flax, hemp, corn, and timber. Amber is found on its shores. Its inhabitants are Letts, Germans, and Livonians. Mittau, the capital, where Louis XVIII. for some time resided, is a town of little importance, Liebau being the seat of nearly all the commerce of

the province. The Niemen forms the boundary between Courland and Prussia.

FROM ST. PETERSBURGH TO ABO.

It is rather more than 100 years (A.D. 1721) since Russia acquired a portion of Finland from Sweden. In 1743, by the treaty of Abo, she acquired another portion; and by the peace of Fredericksham, in 1809, Alexander obtained the remainder. It is divided into seven provinces, of which East Borthnia is the least fertile. Though rye, oats, and barley will come to maturity, yet, the produce is so trifling as well as uncertain, that the inhabitants are obliged to depend at all times on importation; and frequently are driven to the necessity of mixing chopped straw, the bark of trees, and similar articles, with the meal of which they make their bread. The Fins are decidedly a distinct race from the Russians; and their dress, manners, and character are also different. They are of a middle stature, fair complexion, generally red hair, their beards shaven, and their hair, parted at top, is suffered to hang over their shoulders. A thoughtful disposition, often darkening into melancholy, and a similar language, which has the peculiarity of being without prepositions,* complete the national portrait.

* To supply this deficiency, the cases of the nouns are varied to the number of sixteen. The Tshudish tribes, under which term are comprehended the Fins, the Laplanders, the Esthonians, and the Livonians, are a race of unknown origin, but certainly having no connexion with the Huns or Mongols. Their respective languages differ only as peculiar dialects, the difference arising partly from a mixture of Scandinavian, partly from other causes. In Lapland, almost every church is said to have a peculiar version of the service. The Finnish is intermediate between the Lap-

Mr. Coxe visited this part of Finland in 1779, consequently before its annexation to Russia. He left St. Petersburgh for Wyburgh, on the 3d of February, the very middle of the severest season, and he gives the following account of his travelling equipment. "I had on a suit of Bath drugget, lined with flannel; two pairs of worsted stockings, slippers, over which I had boots, well secured with flannel and fur; these boots I generally wore in the carriage, but pulled off when I entered a house. If the weather had proved uncommonly severe, I was provided with a kind of sheep-skin case, with the wool on the inside, for each of my legs, which reached to my waist, and was large enough to enclose my boots. I wrapped round my body a great-coat of blue nankeen, lined with lambskin; and occasionally added a large pelisse or fur robe. I had a bear-skin muff, and my head was enveloped in a black velvet cap, quilted with silk and cotton, which covered my cheeks, was tied under my chin, and might, if necessary, be drawn over my face. Thus, accoutred, I could venture to defy even the cold of Lapland. Our train consisted of eight sledges, including those appropriated to the baggage,—partly open, and partly covered. A sledge of this sort is shaped like a cradle; its tilt, which rises from the hinder extremity, and projects to about two feet, was open in front, but

landish and the Esthonian, which, with less variety of termination, has several intricate combinations. The Livonian is much mixed with other languages, and has been almost superseded by the Lettish or Lithuanian, a mixture of Slavonic and German, which is vernacular in Lettland and Courland, and is purest about Mittau and Riga. The ancient Courlanders were Fins, and this dialect has received from them a mixture of Finnish. There is said to be a considerable resemblance also between the Finnish and the Hungarian.—See Von Adelung's *Mithridates.*

provided with curtains, which might be drawn and tied together, whenever the weather was severe. The outside was secured with matting and oil-skin, and the inside with coarse cloth. Within, was a mattress, feather-bed, and coverlid or quilt of coarse cloth. In this travelling couch I sometimes lay extended at full length; sometimes sat cross-legged like a Turk; and at other times raised myself on a seat formed by two cushions. Each sledge was drawn by two horses, which, on account of the narrowness of the roads, were harnessed one before the other. The usual rate of travelling is from six to eight miles an hour. The motion of the carriage over the beaten snow, was so easy as to be almost imperceptible; and I never performed any journey in a more commodious manner. Though we continued our route during the night, and there was no moon, yet, an aurora borealis and the whiteness of the snow supplied an agreeable species of twilight. The road, or rather path, through which our route lay, was scarcely more than a yard in breadth, sunk two or three feet below the level of the snow, and hardened by the repeated pressure of the horses and sledges. When two carriages met in this narrow track, the horses which turned out of the way, sank into the soft, untrodden snow as high as their girths."

Wyburgh, the principal town in that part of Finland which was wrested from the Swedes by Peter the Great, was built in the thirteenth century, as a military station, to check the increasing power of the republic of Novogorod. Its fortifications still remain. Its Finnish name is Somelinda. It was formerly the capital of all Carelia, and an episcopal city. The population is now between 3 and 4,000. The castle is an interesting building. The town contains four churches, three

Lutheran and one Russian, a large military hospital, a gymnasium, a governor's palace, and considerable magazines. It carries on an active trade in planks, tallow, resin, pitch, and potash. Lat. 60° 42′ 40″ N., long. 46° 15′ 50″ E.

Mr. James, who visited Russia in 1814, arrived at Wyburgh from the Aland Isles, after having travelled through Sweden; and he describes, as very strongly marked, the transition by which the traveller here enters on a new territory. "However vague and ideal," he says, "the marks of geographical boundary may appear, it must be allowed that, on passing the line, an almost instantaneous difference is every where apparent. The inhabitants of this province have assimilated themselves entirely to the taste and manners of their conquerors, and, being mixed with numerous colonists, are now become a truly Russian people. On waking at an early hour after a sound sleep in my sledge, I gazed with wonder at the spectacle that presented itself in the streets of Wyburgh. The glare of white houses, their green roofs and oriental cupolas, the noble mansions of the wealthy, and the religious fane, all so spacious and splendid in comparison of what we had lately been accustomed to see; and yet, above all, the new costume of the bystanders, dressed in long blue caftans, their bare necks, their flowing beards, their sash, cap, and boots of red; were altogether objects so singular, that the spectacle impressed itself on my mind as a dream of the morning, rather than as a scene of real life. The men seemed quite another race of beings; no longer the modest, homely Fin, but persons of a strong masculine habit, carrying a stubborn and listless mien, that, combined with their majestic stature, seemed by no means devoid of dignity; while the coloured orna-

ments with which they were set off, lent them an air of grotesque magnificence, not ill according with the showy buildings that surrounded us. Every object, in short, which met our eyes, partook of the same character, and bore a hint of its Asiatic origin."*

The country between this town and Abo, is described as, for the most part, "a succession of hill and dale, abounding in forests of fir and birch, interspersed with numerous lakes, and thickly overspread with shattered fragments of granite, which look like the wrecks of mountains." When Mr. Coxe travelled this route, there was no moon, nor even the smallest gleam of an aurora borealis; but, from the strong light reflected from the snow, the train of sledges made a very picturesque appearance as they "wound round the whitened hills, pierced into the thick forests, or extended in a straight line along the frozen surface of the lakes;" and the silence of night was frequently relieved by the carols of the drivers, who sang the most simple and pleasing airs. The Fins are very fond of music, and of the composition and recitation of songs. At their fairs, and often in their private meetings, the poet, in the midst of a circle of auditors, recites or sings one line, when a coadjutor, taking up the last word, finishes the line along with him, and then repeats it alone. The first speaker, in the mean time, recollects or composes the succeeding line, which he then sings, and his assistant repeats; and thus they proceed till the poem is ended.

Near Frederickshamn, a small but strongly fortified town between Wyburgh and Abo, there is a bridge which formed the limit between Swedish and Russian

* James's Journal of a Tour in Germany, &c. vol. i. (3d ed.) p. 390.

Finland, before the total subjugation of this country by the present emperor. This bridge claims "a sort of historical notoriety from the mad caprice of the late Gustavus Adolphus, who, outstripping the limits of his jurisdiction, ordered the half of the bridge on the Russian side, as well as that on his own, to be painted with the Swedish colours. This pitiful act of aggression afterwards formed one of the pretexts of a war, that led his country to the very brink of destruction, and, by its consequences, deprived the ancient blood of Vasa of their inheritance." *

The road generally followed from this bridge to Abo, lies near the shore of the Gulf of Bothnia. Masses of granite rocks, hills, and woods, diversify the country. Grouse, black-cocks, and ptarmigans abound in this district; and the cock of the wood, a large species of grouse, almost equal in size to a small turkey, is sometimes seen. In a very romantic situation, on a rising shore, near several rocks and immense fragments of granite, stands Helsingfors; near it is Sviaborg, the Gibraltar of the North. This fortress is not less singular in its construction, than remarkable for its strength. Six islands, which lie within the circumference of four miles, in the Gulf of Finland, about three miles and a half from Helsingfors, compose the fortress; or rather, strictly speaking, the three largest of these islands, connected by bridges, form the fortress itself, while the other three, strongly fortified, serve as its outworks. The works are partly blasted from the granite rock, and partly built of the same material. The walls are from six to ten feet thick, and in a few places forty-eight high. Eight hundred pieces of cannon protect this

* James's Journal, &c. vol. i. p. 377.

fortress, which has accommodations for 12,000 men. There is also a dry dock, with an arsenal, &c. These works, which nature and art seem to have combined to render impregnable, were surrendered by treachery to the Russian, both in the first and second wars of Finland.*

The country, for 150 miles, presents a picturesque diversity of hill and dale, and is better peopled than most other parts of Finland. Abo is situated at the union of the Gulfs of Bothnia and Finland, on the banks of a small river, and is built partly on a ridge of steep rocks, and partly on a plain. Most of the houses are of wood, painted red; some are of brick. It is an episcopal city, and has, besides its cathedral, a university, founded by Queen Christian in 1640, and enlarged by the present Emperor of Russia. Also has a commodious harbour, and enjoys a considerable trade; its chief exports are timber, iron, tin, corn, and linen. There is here one of the best glass-houses in the Russian dominions. The population in 1791, was 11,500, but it has since then been on the increase. It stands in lat. 60° 28′ N., 22° 7′ E.

Mr. James mentions a singular custom as existing at Abo. The prevalent religion here, as in Sweden,

* At this place, Mr. James "made a trip over the sea, in a vessel moving with skaits on the ice;" an amusement which he thus describes:—"It was a frame of wood, laid down as the deck of a ship; two skaits were placed under the bows, and a third, being moveable on a pivot, supplied the place of a rudder. For obvious reasons she was rather awkward in her stays; and unless her crew shifted their seat from one side to the other with great adroitness, was infallibly overset. Her motion was tremendously rapid, and she held a complement of twenty or thirty persons; but, as the snow was necessarily cleared out for her track, the length of the voyage was of a limited extent. The circuit was ingeniously enough carried in the form of a pentagon, so as to enable her to take advantage of every wind."—*Journal*, vol. i. p. 387.

is the Lutheran. "The solemnisation of marriages takes place only once a year, and that on a fixed day in the teeming autumn. Before this time arrives, the expectant lover is not permitted, by the custom of the land, to pay his addresses in person to the object of his wishes. His offer is made by sending a piece of money, that is accepted or not, as the fair one is inclined to approve or reject his suit; but both the conveyance of this token of love, and the whole of the after ceremonials, are carried on through the intervention of some old woman of the village, whose occupation and calling may seem enviable to some bustling gentlewomen of other countries, being that of a regularly established match-maker."

The summer route from St. Petersburgh to Stockholm, is by land to Abo; and thence, by ship, through the islands of this part of the Gulf of Bothnia, to Aland: crossing this, a more open sea bears the traveller to the capital of Sweden. This route is likewise followed in winter, when the ice is sufficiently strong in the gulf, and among the islands; otherwise, the route lies round the top of the gulf by Torneo. Both Mr. Coxe and Mr. James crossed the Frozen Sea. About forty miles from Abo, the former arrived upon the Gulf of Bothnia. The track over the frozen surface between the islands, is marked out by boughs of trees placed at intervals, and, on shore, by large poles with bunches of straw on their tops. The duty of providing these necessary way-marks, devolves upon the inhabitants of the several parishes respectively. Notice is given at church as soon as the ice may be reckoned secure, and certain distances are allotted to the share of each individual. Travelling by night is extremely dangerous, not merely from the danger of wandering from the path, but also from the large

holes which frequently occur in the ice. Some of the islands are bare granite; others are covered with underwood, and well inhabited. In some places, Mr. Coxe found the ice regular and smooth; in others, frozen into waves and large masses. The peasants of one island, where he stopped during the night, are described as well clothed and very honest. Their cottages, like those in Russia, were formed of trees piled one on the other, containing two or three apartments, small, but neat and clean. They had many conveniences unknown to the Russian peasants, particularly beds. While our traveller was here, the weather suddenly changed. a storm, followed by a clear, warm sun, rendered the remaining passage rather more dangerous, several apertures having been formed in the ice, which had moreover become less solid and strong. It was therefore deemed prudent that the party should be preceded by a guide, who carried a hatchet and plumbing-iron; the former to cut the ice, and the latter to measure its thickness. In about eight hours, proceeding in this manner, Mr. Coxe reached the isle of Aland, a distance of about thirty-five miles.

The main island, which gives name to all the rest, is about 40 miles in length, and from 12 to 16 in breadth. It contains 15 villages, and 9,000 inhabitants. Each householder is his own carpenter, shoemaker, tailor, fisherman, baker, and miller. The corn-mills almost equal in number the houses: they are rudely and cheaply made, the sails of wooden planks, and the mill-stones are shaped liked the quern of the Highlands of Scotland. Their cabins are seldom painted. Sheep-skins form their common dress, and bags of dried seal-skins serve for their shoes. "Upon a general view of their condition," remarks Mr. James,

"the Fins are not much improved (the rustics at least) since the days when we first hear their names mentioned; and the short, pithy description of Tacitus is often quoted in allusion to their present habits and character. I do not know that their late annexation to the Russian dominions has been productive of any symptoms of discontent or ill-will. The peasants in Aland, it is true, complained of the exactions of the soldiery; and, generally speaking, their honest prejudices seemed to incline them in favour of the government they had so long been accustomed to obey. Yet, the more wealthy and thinking classes cannot but feel the advantages of their present situation. Incorporated with a more powerful state, they are delivered from the perpetual dread of seeing their country made the seat of war; their trade and commerce are more free and more liberally encouraged; while, as far as it can be made compatible with the Russian system, they are granted the exercise of their ancient liberties, customs, and privileges;—for the policy that attends the Russian schemes of aggrandisement, in this respect as well as others, is ever that of the Roman conqueror."

We have now conducted our readers to the western limit of this immense empire, for so the line of its boundary in this direction was settled by the treaty of 1809. Returning to Abo, and proceeding in a N.W. direction, no place of importance or interest occurs during a long and dreary interval, till we reach

ARCHANGEL.

The government of Olonetz, which lies between that of Finland and that of Archangel, presents for nearly its whole surface, an assemblage of stones, lakes, morasses, and forests; so that its thin population are

obliged to depend for the necessaries of life almost entirely on other parts of Russia. In its mountains are found quarries of a species of marble and of porphyry, and mines of iron and copper: on these, the inhabitants exercise their skill and industry, and from these they draw the means of subsistence. Their whole number does not reach 200,000, of whom the Russians form one half, and the Carelians, a tribe of Fins, the other. Lake Onega lies within the limits of this government, between Lake Ladogo and the White Sea.

The government of Archangel is of great extent, stretching eastward to the borders of Asia, and to the west as far as the government of Olonetz and Swedish and Danish Lapland. The Frozen Ocean and the White Sea form its northern boundaries, and the governments of Vologda and Olonetz its southern. Within its limits are also comprised the island of *Novai Zemlia*, or the new land, (improperly called Nova Zembla,) and several other small islands of the Arctic Ocean. Its surface is covered with a number of lakes and morasses; and, in proportion to its size, its population is very trifling, consisting of Russians, Laplanders, and Samoids. The last are a nomadic and idolatrous tribe, scarcely raised above the lowest scale of ignorance and barbarism, living by the chace and fishing. Of the other inhabitants, the more civilised employ themselves in feeding cattle, and in fattening calves for the St. Petersburgh market: the excellency of Archangel veal has been already noticed. Such of them as live near the sea, are employed in catching whales, herrings, &c., for which they sometimes go even as far as Spitzbergen. Furs are also an article of their traffic, and eider-down.

In this barren district stands the city of Archangel,

formerly the only maritime place in Russia, and ranking in size and consequence among the chief cities in the empire; it still retains a considerable portion of importance and wealth. It stands on the Dwina, where it falls into the Gulf of Archangel, or part of the White Sea, in lat. 64° 33′ 36″ N., long. 38° 59′ 30″ E. We have already mentioned its accidental discovery by the English in 1558. At that period, and till the conquests of Peter the Great on the shores of the Baltic led to the founding of St. Petersburgh, Archangel was the emporium of Russia. Since then, its trade has declined, and its population, which, in its flourishing state, amounted to 30,000, does not now reach 7,000 souls. Their early and long-continued intercourse with the English, introduced among the inhabitants a degree of mercantile information and general intelligence very superior to that which other Russian merchants possessed; and Mr. Coxe mentions that, even so lately as when he visited St. Petersburgh, the most honest and intelligent among the merchants and tradesmen of the capital, were the natives of Archangel and its environs. Many of them were employed by the members of the British factory to superintend their warehouses; and they bore the general character of faithful and industrious servants. In the days of its prosperity, a great fair was held at Archangel in the month of August, during which 300 ships, English, Dutch, French, Swedish, and Danish, were often to be seen in its harbour. But, though the commerce of this place has much fallen off, the Dwina, on which it stands, forms the chief communication between the northern and western parts of Siberia, from which iron and various kinds of furs are procured: these, with hemp, flax, potash, caviare, tar, tallow, hides, timber, &c., are the chief

articles of export. Its merchants not only trade with the foreigners who visit their port, but frequent the fairs of the interior of the empire, and proceed, for the purposes of trade, sometimes even as far as the frontiers of China.

We must now return to St. Petersburgh, and take the route to Moscow, the ancient capital of the Russian empire, and, within these few years, the scene of one of the most memorable events in ancient or modern history.

FROM ST. PETERSBURGH TO MOSCOW.

The carriage road between St. Petersburgh and Moscow, as in most other parts of Russia, is constructed in the following manner: "Trunks of trees are laid transversely in rows parallel to each other, and are bound down in the centre, and at each extremity, by long poles or beams, fastened into the ground with wooden pegs; these trunks are covered with layers of boughs, and the whole is strewed over with sand and earth. When the road is new, it is remarkably good; but, as the trunks decay or sink into the ground, and as the sand or earth is worn away, or washed off by the rain, (as is frequently the case for several miles together,) it is broken into innumerable holes; and the jolting of the carriage over the bare timber can better be conceived than described."* In winter, however, the snow, in most parts of Russia, admits of a much more pleasant and expeditious mode of travelling by means of sledges.

* The inhabitants of Russia, to alleviate this inconvenience, universally fill their travelling carriages with soft pillows, taken from their beds, which give a particularly luxurious but grotesque appearance to their equipages.

The distance between the two capitals is 487 miles. Peter the Great began to construct a road which was to be continued the whole way, in a straight line,—an elevated causeway carried over marsh and bog, and through thick forests of birch and fir,—in other words, a bridge of timber. When Mr. Hanway travelled, in 1743, only one hundred miles had been completed in pursuance of the original plan; and, according to the calculation made by him, no fewer than 2,100,000 trees were required. On each side of this, as of all the other great provincial roads, the law directs that an esplanade should be made, 100 yards broad, for the accommodation of cattle coming to market: by means of this convenience, the journey from the Ukraine to St. Petersburgh, which occupies two months, becomes practicable at little expense to the graziers, and with little fatigue or injury to their cattle.

Many villages line the road from St. Petersburgh to Moscow; they are all very similar to one another, consisting of a single street, with wooden cottages, and a few with brick houses.* In the villages, the trees that form the road, are much more neatly and carefully joined together, than in any other parts of the road. The present emperor has done much to facilitate the intercourse between the two capitals:

* "The whole journey from St. Petersburgh to Moscow, offers nothing that will strike a traveller more than the town or village of Jedrover; it consists of one street, as broad as Piccadilly, formed by the gable-end of wooden huts, whose roofs project far above their bases; and this street is terminated by the church. There is seldom any difference in constructing the poorer towns in Russia: a window in such places is a mark of distinction, and seldom found. The houses in general have only small holes, through which, as you drive by, you see a head stuck, as in a pillory."—CLARKE'S *Travels*, vol. i. p. 43.

a great part of the road is already *Macadamised*, and diligences run daily. Dr. Clarke, in his journey between the two capitals, made use of a German *batarde*, which he regards as best adapted for a journey in which the traveller passes from one climate to another, where of course sledges cannot be used. It is in reality an English chariot, with a *dormeuse* behind; instead of a window, there is a large lamp. "Thus provided," observes Dr. Clarke, "a person may travel night and day, fearless of want of accommodation or of houses of repose. His carriage is his home, which accompanies him every where; and if he choose to halt, or accidents oblige him to stop in the midst of a forest or a desert, he may sleep, read, write, eat, drink, or amuse himself with any portable musical instrument, careless of the frosts of the north, or the dews, the mosquitoes, and vermin of the south. Over snowy regions, he places his house upon a sledge, and, when the snow melts, upon its wheels; being always careful, where wheels are used for long journies through hot countries, to soak them in water whenever he stops for the night." A more characteristic and national vehicle is the *kibitka*, described by Sir Robert Ker Porter, as "nothing more than a large wooden cradle."* Mr. Coxe says, it is the old Scythian waggon. It holds two persons abreast; the driver sits at the further end, near the horse's tail; the hinder part is covered with a tilt, open in front, made of laths, and covered with birch, or other bark. The whole machine does not contain a single piece of iron, and there are no springs: the body of the carriage is fastened to the wheels by wooden pins, ropes, and sticks. In order

* That in which Sir Robert travelled, was "fixed on a double keel, or skate of wood, strongly shod with iron."

to prevent the inconvenience that would arise from the jolting in such roads as those of Russia, a feather-bed is usually placed at the bottom. With this precaution, a *kibitka* is a snug and comfortable vehicle. In some parts of Tartary, the top is taken off at night, and serves as a tent; hence the Russians call the tents of the Calmucks *kibitka*.

An English traveller, who had visited the most remote and desolate parts of the Scotch Highlands, even half a century ago, would be ill prepared to encounter the inconveniences, the discomforts, and privations to which he would be exposed in journeying from one capital of Russia to the other, if he did not carry along with him the means of preventing or remedying them. The representations of Dr. Clarke with regard to the condition of Russia, must be taken with much caution and qualification; yet, he speaks but the language of all other travellers in this country, when he advises that nothing should be expected from inns or houses of entertainment, not even clean straw for a bed. He enumerates the following articles as forming an indispensable portion of the traveller's baggage: a pewter tea-pot; a kettle; a saucepan, the top of which may be used as a dish; tea, sugar, and a large cheese; loaves of bread made into rusks; if in the winter, frozen meat; wine in the cold districts, vinegar in the hot. Thus prepared, he may safely encounter this long journey.

The imperial palace of Tzarskoe-Selo is the only object worth notice that occurs between St. Petersburgh and Novogorod. Captain Cochrane arrived at Tzarskoe-Selo, on the night of the 24th of May, 1820, just in time to see "the emperor's favourite palace wrapt in an inextinguishable flame." Alexander was himself a spectator of the misfortnne. "Tzarskoe-Selo,"

says the Captain, "was the palace in which the emperor and his brother Constantine had been brought up, and passed their earlier years. It was hither also that the emperor was accustomed to retire, when the cares of state permitted him, from the anxieties of a throne. It had been greatly embellished by his majesty, and was considered as one of the most beautiful retreats in Europe." A long avenue of trees, superb mile-stones of granite and marble at the end of each verst, or three-quarters of a mile, a country enlivened with houses, and enriched by cultivation, render the first ten miles interesting and pleasant. After that, as far as Itchora, which is twenty miles from the capital, the traveller passes through an inhospitable and thinly-peopled district, which prepares him for the scenes he is to witness, and the inconveniences he has to experience, during the greater part of the remainder of his journey to Moscow.

In the routes we have described through the conquered provinces of the Baltic, the Russian peasantry are not met with; and in the route to Archangel, it would have been unfair to take our ideas of their general condition and character, from the appearance they exhibit in a remote, sterile, and little-frequented district. On the road from St. Petersburgh to Moscow, they present themselves under the most favourable circumstances. With a few exceptions, the peasants of Russia are all slaves: they form two classes—peasants of the crown, and peasants belonging to individuals. The present emperor has done much to lessen the evils of the condition of the former, and to render their manumission, as well as that of the latter class, more easily practicable. Yet, the condition of both is still

degrading and deplorable. It is calculated, that about a sixth part of the peasantry belong to the crown; these are immediately under the jurisdiction of the imperial officers: many have been enfranchised, and have become burghers. Peasants belonging to individuals are their private property, as much as the cattle on their estates. The rent paid by the crown peasants is fixed; that paid by private peasants is regulated by their means of getting money, or, in other words, is a tax on their industry. There is no law to restrain the demands of the master: their time and labour are absolutely at his command. Some of the nobility send their slaves to St. Petersburgh or Moscow, to be instructed in various trades; and then, either employ them on their own estates, let them for hire, sell to them permission to exercise their trade, or dispose of them at an advanced price. Some of the Russian nobles have 70,000 or 100,000 peasants; from this, it may well be supposed that their wealth is immense, in whatever manner the labour of these slaves is employed. Women and children, as well as men, must labour for their master, for such pay as his caprice or his wants may dispose or enable him to give. Tithes are besides demanded of whatever may remain in their hands. As soon as a child reaches the age of ten, its labour is required; and when he reaches fifteen, each male slave is obliged by law to labour three days in each week for his master. If the proprietor chooses to employ him the other days, he may; as, for example, in a manufactory: in this case, however, he finds him in food and clothing. In general, the master, instead of exacting the labour of his slave for the stated portion of the week, agrees to receive a rent,

and he is bound to furnish him with a house and a certain portion of land; the aged and infirm are provided with food, raiment, and lodging, at his expense.

"The master has the power of correcting his slaves, by blows or confinement;" but the law—which, however, is easily evaded—forbids the exercise of any great cruelty. No slave can quit his village, or, if he be a domestic slave, his master's family, without a passport.* Imprisonment with hard labour is the punishment for run-away slaves. A master may send his slave to the public workhouse, or into the army; in the latter case, he sends one man less the next levy. No slave can be sold out of Russia, nor in it, except to a noble; but this law is frequently eluded. A slave may obtain his liberty by manumission, (this is frequently granted to favourite domestic slaves, on the death of their master,) by purchase, or by serving in the army or navy.

The political state of the Russian peasantry, degrading and injurious as it is to the highest energies and best feelings of our nature, is not, however, much aggravated by their condition in other respects. If any thing could atone for personal and political slavery, it might be justly maintained, that a large class of the peasantry of Ireland, from the total absence of domestic comfort among them, are in a more miserable state than the slaves of Russia.†

* If a person be found dead without a passport, his body is sent to the hospital for dissection.

† "I have no hesitation in saying," affirms Captain Cochrane, "that the condition of the peasantry here is far superior to that class in Ireland. In Russia, provisions are plentiful, good, and cheap, while in Ireland, they are scanty, poor, and dear, the best part

Their houses, formed of whole trees, and usually constructed solely with the assistance of the hatchet, are in tolerable repair, and well adapted to their habits. They sometimes, but not often, consist of two stories: the lower forms a store-room; in the upper one they dwell. A kind of ladder on the outside serves as a staircase. There is generally but one room in the habitable part. Their furniture seldom comprises more than a wooden table, and benches fastened to the sides of the room, wooded platters, bowls, and spoons, and, perhaps, a large earthen pan to cook their victuals in. Their diet is substantial; black rye-bread, eggs, salt fish, mushrooms, and bacon: a hotch-potch of salt or fresh meat, groats, and rye-flour, seasoned with onions and garlic, constitutes their favourite

being exported from the latter country, while the local impediments in the other render them not worth that expense. Good comfortable log-houses are here found in every village; immense droves of cattle are scattered over an unlimited pasturage, and whole forests of fuel may be obtained for a trifle. With ordinary industry and economy, the Russian peasant may become rich, especially those of the villages situated between the capitals, both of which might be supplied by them with butter and cheese; whereas at present not a dairy exists, the peasantry contenting themselves with the culture of as much land, and the breeding of as many cattle, as may be sufficient for their immediate wants. The women I have always found engaged in some employment: they make very good coarse woollen cloths and linens, as well as knit stockings and spin thread. The whole work of the house is thrown upon them, while they also partake of the labours of the field. I will not, certainly, recommend for the adoption of any civilised countries, the treatment they receive from their lordly masters; although I have no doubt the like was the custom of England half a century ago, and may be still in the hard-working counties. Having mentioned Ireland in comparison with Russia, I may remark, that both countries may fairly vie with one another in the ancient savage virtue of hospitality." — COCHRANE'S *Pedestrian Journey*, vol. i. p. 78.

dish. Of this kind of food, they obtain plenty at a cheap rate. Their clothing, however, is dear.* To clothe a Russian peasant or soldier, costs nearly three times as much as in England; but their clothing is strong, and being made loose and wide, lasts longer. "It is rare to see a Russian in rags." In general, the Russian peasants are a large, coarse, hardy race, of great bodily strength, rarely below the middle stature, strong-limbed, commonly lean, but well-built. Their mouth and eyes are small, their lips thin, teeth even and beautiful; their hair brown, reddish, or flaxen; their beard strong and bushy. Their organs of taste, smell, sight, and hearing, are acute, especially the latter two. They are brisk and active, and by no means wanting in industry, when they have an interest in exertion. The complexion of the female peasantry is *brunette*; their skin in general delicate. Some of them, as well as of the other classes, are extremely handsome. Females of all ranks soon attain maturity, but fall off and look old at a very early period of life. The frequent use of the hot-bath is supposed to occasion this premature decay among all classes; while, among the higher ranks, the odious practice of painting the face, and among the peasantry, hard work, their peculiar food, and inattention to their persons, contribute to the same effect.

* In summer, they generally wear nankeen caftans, one of which costs thirteen roubles. The *labkas* (sandals made of linden bark) cost nothing, except in great towns. A blue nankeen shirt, trimmed with red, costs two or three roubles. They wear linen drawers, and linen or hempen rags wrapped round their legs and feet, over which the richer sort draw their boots. The sheep-skin *schaub* costs eight roubles, but it lasts a long time, as does a lamb-skin cap, which costs three roubles; the common red cap costs about the same. For a common cloth *caftan*, such as the peasants sometimes wear, Mr. Heber was asked thirty roubles.

By far the most important and interesting place between St. Petersburgh and Moscow, is the city of

NOVOGOROD.

THERE are few cities, indeed, in the whole extent of the Russian empire, the history and present state of which, as contrasted with its former condition, supply such interesting materials as this. It is situated in lat. 58° 31′ 32″ N., long. 31° 19′ 39″ E., in a fine plain, at the northern end of Lake Ilmen. The river Volkhov divides it into two parts; on the right bank is the market-town, called Torgovaia: on the left bank, the quarter of St. Sophia. At a short distance, especially when approached from the Moscow side, it exhibits a most imposing appearance. The number and grandeur of the churches and convents which rise to the eye on every side, give high expectation of an approach to a large and magnificent city; but this expectation is not realised. "The melancholy ideas excited by the present appearance of Novogorod," remarks Dr. Clarke, "have been felt by all travellers. Who has not heard the ancient saying, which prevailed in the days of its greatness—*Quis contra Deos et magnam Novogordiam?*—Who can resist the Gods and Novogorod the Great?* Nomade Slavonians were its founders, about the time that the Saxons, invited by Vortigern,

* The city was styled *Novgorod Veliki*, Novogorod the Great, to distinguish it from *Nijni Novgorod*, in Great Russia, *Novgorod Severskoi* (Northern Novogorod), in the government of Tchernigoff, and *Novgorodka*, in Lithuania. *Novgorod*, or *Novgrad*, signifies new town, the name originally given to it in contradistinction to the ancient *Slavensk*, the site of which is found at *Staroe Gorodistche*. It was also called by the ancient writers *Halmgard*, and the country *Gard-erik*, or *Ostro-gard*, *i.e.* the east country.

first came into Britain. Four centuries after, a motley tribe, collected from the original inhabitants of all the watery and sandy plains around the Finland Gulf, made it their metropolis. Nearly a thousand years have passed away since Ruric, the Norman, gathering them together at the mouth of the Volchova (Volkhov), laid the foundation of an empire destined to extend over the vast territories of all the Russias; afterwards, ascending the river to the spot where its rapid current rushes from the lake Ilmen, to the Ladoga lake, he fixed his residence in Novogorod. In the midst of those intestine divisions which resulted from the partition of the empire, at the death of Vladimir (A.D. 1015), who divided his states among his twelve sons,* there arose three independent princes, and a great number of petty confederacies. The seat of government was successively removed to Sudezal, Vladimir, and Moscow. Novogorod adopted a mixed government, partly monarchical and partly republican. In the middle of the thirteenth century (A.D. 1250), it was distinguished by the victories of its grand duke over the Swedes on the banks of the Neva; and by its remote situation, it escaped the ravages of the Tâtars in the fourteenth. In the fifteenth, it submitted to the yoke of Ivan I., whose successor, Ivan II., in the sixteenth, ravaged and desolated the place, carrying away the palladium of the city, the famous bell, which the inhabitants had dignified with the appellation of *eternal*. But its ruin was not fully accomplished until the building of St. Petersburgh, when all the commerce of the Baltic was transferred to that capital."†

* Most of the Russian authorities say only ten, and these we have followed in our abstract of Russian history.

† Clarke's Travels, vol. i. p. 33.

Its republican form of government in the middle ages, and the privileges and liberty enjoyed under that form by its inhabitants, prepared the way for commercial industry and enterprise: its situation, too, was favourable for commerce. From these causes it became, about the middle of the fifteenth century, the chief factory of the Hanseatic league, in their trade with Russia and Poland. At this period, its territory was very expensive, reaching, on the north, to the frontiers of Lavonia and Finland, and comprising a great part of the province of Archangel, with a large district beyond the north-western limits of Siberia. It was at this period that its powers were so great, as to give rise to the proverb above alluded to. In the year 1553, in consequence of the arbitrary and tyrannical proceedings of Ivan IV., in seizing the effects, and imprisoning the persons of the German merchants resident there, Novogorod was abandoned by the Hanseatic league: the merchants connected with it, removed first to Revel, and afterwards to Narva. It still continued, however, to be the largest and most commercial city in all Russia. Chancellor, who passed through it in 1554, in his way to Moscow, thus describes it: "Next unto Moscow, the city of Novogorod is reputed the chiefest of Russia; for although it be in majestie inferior to it, yet, in greatnesse, it goeth beyond it. It is the chiefest and greatest mart town of all Muscovy; and albeit the emperor's seat is not there, but at Moscow, yet, the commodiousness of the river, falling into that gulph which is called *Sinus Finnicus*, whereby it is well frequented by merchants, makes it more famous than Moscow itself."

Its present size, condition, and number of inhabitants, form a strong contrast to what they were in

the days of its commercial and political glory, when it contained at least 400,000 inhabitants, and covered an area of 63 versts in circumference. Some idea of its populousness in 1508, may be formed from the fact, that, in that year, above 15,000 died of an epidemical disorder. The number of its inhabitants at present does not exceed 7,000. Its streets present mouldering walls, empty courts, churches in decay, and a few dwellings thinly scattered amidst large traces of desolation.

There are still, however, some objects worthy of observation. The cathedral of St. Sophia is generally considered as one of the most ancient churches in Russia. It was built in the eleventh century, soon after Christianity was introduced into Russia by the Greeks, and dedicated to St. Sophia, in imitation of the name given to the magnificent edifice erected by Justinian at Constantinople. With Christianity, the art of painting was introduced; and in this cathedral there still exist paintings by Greek artists, executed at a period anterior to the revival of the art in Italy, and bearing inscriptions in the Greek characters of those times. The figures of our Saviour, of the Virgin Mary, and of various saints, of which these paintings consist, are finished in a hard, flat style of colouring, upon a gold ground, and are exactly similar to those of the Greek artists by whom, according to Vasari, painting was first introduced into Italy. The Russians who are peculiarly happy in a talent of imitation, have copied these paintings. "Thus we find," Dr. Clarke remarks, "at the end of the eighteenth century, a Russian peasant placing before his *Bogh* (God,) a picture purchased in the markets of St. Petersburgh or Moscow, exactly similar to those brought from Greece during the tenth;—the same stiff repre-

sensation of figures, which the Greeks themselves seem to have copied from works in mosaic; the same mode of mixing and laying on the colours on a plain gold surface; the same custom of painting upon wood; and the same expensive covering of a silver coat of mail." There are also some curious specimens of architecture as well as of painting, of the date of the eleventh and twelfth centuries. The entrance to the cathedral is through a pair of brazen gates, which, according to a doubtful tradition, were brought from Cherson, at the time of Vladimir's expedition against the Greek empire. The tombs of that sovereign and of Theodor are in the cathedral. The walls of the kremlin still remain, comprehending within their circle the cathedral, as well as the ancient archiepiscopal palace, with its staircase on the outside, the new palace, and a few other brick buildings: the rest is overspread with weeds and nettles, and covered with ruins.

Upon the bridge leading to the kremlin from the other part of the town, "is a small sanctuary, where," Dr. Clarke says, "every peasant who passes, deposits either his candle or his penny. Before this place, which is filled with old pictures of the kind already described, and which a stranger might really mistake for a picture-stall, devotees during the whole day may be seen bowing and crossing themselves. A Russian hardly commits any action without this previous ceremony. If he be employed to drive your carriage, his crossing occupies two minutes before he is mounted. When he descends, the same motion is repeated. If a church be in view, you see him at work with his head and hand as if seized with St. Vitus's dance. If he make any earnest protestation, or enter a room, or go out, you are entertained

with the same manual and capital exercise. When beggars return thanks for alms, the operation lasts a longer time; and then, between the crossing, by way of interlude, they generally make prostration, and touch their foreheads to the earth."*

The market town or trading quarter of Novogorod, contains the governor's house, with a great number of wooden habitations, and would be regarded by the traveller as a mere Russian village, were it not for the vast number of brick churches and convents that attest its former magnificence. The river, which is of considerable depth, and rather broader than the Thames at Windsor, bears evidence to the well-chosen situation of this place for commerce; but it now flows idly by. Thus, under this northern latitude, in a city which history has almost forgotten, we have repeated, the common table of the rise and fall of other free commercial states, — Tyre, Carthage, Venice, Pisa, and Genoa.

The inhabitants of this city boast that it never was subdued or even visited by the Tâtars; and they point to the cross unaccompanied by the crescent, at the top of their steeples, as an emblem of this proud fact.†

Near Bronitza, a village upon the Masta, within twenty miles of Novogorod, in the middle of a vast plain, there is an insulated hill, the lower part of which is thickly strewed with detached pieces of red and grey granite. These blocks of granite, which

* Clarke, vol. i. p. 39.

† It is a prevailing opinion, that the unconquered cities in Russia are distinguished from those which were reconquered from the Tâtars, by the former exhibiting the cross alone, and the latter, the crescent surmounted by the cross: the truth of this opinion, however, is doubted by some writers.

are found in Finland, and in many parts of the country between St. Petersburgh and Moscow, form a geological problem not easily explained. There are likewise near this village, several of those barrows or *tumuli*, so common in various parts of Russia. The erection of these is generally ascribed to the Tâtars. It is known, that during one of their invasions of Russia, they were repulsed by the army of Novogorod, not far from this place. The fantastical and singular taste with which the cottages in these parts are distinguished, is also ascribed to the fashion of the Tâtars, though it seems highly improbable that any thing should have been borrowed from an enemy whose abode was of so short duration. The high gable roofs of these cottages project sometimes as much as sixteen or eighteen feet over the front; they are profusely carved, and adorned with small pendants at the extremities, " in the form of which," Mr. James remarks, " as well as in their collocation, a curious resemblance may be traced between them and the houses in the northernmost parts of the Tyrol: they are similar also in this respect, that the communications in the upper stories are carried on by means of a gallery outside of the wall."

From the top of a church on the summit of an insulated hill near Bronitza, is obtained a very singular as well as extensive prospect. For three or four miles, the country is divided into large enclosures of pasture and corn-fields. On the south, the Valdai hills are seen skirting an immense plain, which extends to the north, east, and west, as far as the eye can reach. Not a single hillock can be detected in its whole expanse. A few solitary wooden villages, like so many points in a boundless desert, are faintly and with difficulty descried in the midst of an almost interminable

forest. At a great distance, beyond this plain, rise the spires of Novogorod, and the lake Ilmen is scarcely discernible through the thick gloom of the trees. This, though on a larger scale, and with stronger features than commonly occur, may fairly be taken as a scene characteristic of most parts of European Russia.

Mr. Coxe passed through this district about the end of September. The corn had been already harvested; for it ripens earlier here, than might be expected in such a northern climate. As, however, the cold weather not unfrequently sets in before the grain is thoroughly fit for the sickle, the peasants, to remedy the evil, erect a wooden building, resembling in form their cottages, but without windows, and with a small door, under which a large cavity is dug; in this cavity, the corn in the ear, as soon as it is cut, is laid and dried by means of a fire: it is then hung on frames in the air, and afterwards threshed. In this part of his journey, Mr. Coxe passed numberless herds of oxen, most of them in their way from the Ukraine to the capital. During this progress of nearly 800 miles, the drovers seldom enter a house: their cattle are fed on the strips of pasture that line the side of the road, and the foliage of the trees forms their own covering in bad weather." "In the evening, the silence of the country was interrupted by the occasional lowing of the oxen, and the carols of the drivers; while the solitary gloom of the forest was enlivened by the glare of numerous fires, surrounded by different groupes of herdsmen, in various attitudes: some were sitting round the flame, some employed in dressing their provisions, and others sleeping on the bare ground. They resembled in their dress and manners a rambling horde of Tâtars."

It is not only the drovers who are fond of singing

these carols; the Russian peasantry generally have the same taste and propensity. When serving as coachmen or postillions, they begin to sing as soon as ever they are mounted, and continue without interruption for several hours. Occasionally, they perform in parts; and Mr. Coxe frequently observed them engaged in a kind of musical dialogue, making reciprocal questions and responses, as if they were chanting their ordinary conversation. He adds: "The postillions sing from the beginning to the end of a stage; the soldiers sing continually during their march; the countrymen sing during their most laborious occupations; the public houses re-echo with their carols; and on a still evening, I have frequently heard the air vibrate with the notes from the surrounding villages."

The most common and favourite music of the Russian peasantry, over the whole extent of their vast empire, is one species of simple melody: this however, admits of infinite variation, according to the custom of the particular province, or the ability and taste of the individual singer. The song, an ancient legend, a declaration of love, a dialogue between a lover and his mistress, a description of a beautiful girl, a murder, or the history of an enormous giant, forms the usual burden of their songs, which are mostly in prose, and often extempore. Sometimes, mere letters and syllables without meaning, but metrically arranged, are adapted to the air. This is the common practice in the lullabies sung by mothers to their children; and while they are singing them, the male peasants often perform the national dance to the same tune, accompanied with instrumental music.

The country round Valdai, the next place on the road to Moscow, is more agreeable and diversified than

this part of Russia usually presents. The town lies on an agreeable slope; and its houses are better built and more decorated than the generality of Russian cottages. In point of situation, Mr. James says, it is an oasis in the desert. This town was originally peopled with Polish and Finnish captives, in the reign of the Czar Alexis Mikhailovitch, and it still exhibits, in the complexion and beauty of the women, traces of its origin: the inhabitants are distinguished also by a peculiarity of accent or pronunciation. It is surrounded, on three sides, by a mud rampart, the fourth being open to the lake; and contains three churches, about 500 houses, and 1,500 inhabitants. It stands in lat. 57° 48′ N., long. 51° 30′ E. of Paris. Valdai gives its name to a lake and a chain of hills. The lake is nine miles in circumference, with a wooded island in its centre: on this stands a handsome monastery, the glittering spires of which, rising among the dark foliage of surrounding and intervening trees, form a beautiful and interesting object. The whole scene, Mr. James says, "glows with that luxuriant interchange of white and red, and green and gold, that enters so largely into the composition of a Russian view." The Valdai hills are not of great elevation; but they are the highest between the Gulf of Finland and the Euxine Sea; and separate the waters which flow towards the Caspian, from those which flow towards the Baltic.* Their direction is N.E. and S.W. They are covered with trees, chiefly pine, fir, birch, linden, aspen, and alder. The soil in the vales is fertile, mostly clay and marl.

The circumstance, that the rivers rising in the

* Mr. Tooke computed the highest point at about 1,200 feet above the level of the sea.

Valdai hills, take their course, some into the Gulf of Finland, and some into the Euxine, induced Peter the Great to fix on this spot as affording the means of opening a water communication between the northern and southern regions of his empire. He accordingly formed the Vyshnei Voloshok canal, which has been already described as contributing to supply St. Petersburgh with the commodities of the extreme east and south of the Russian empire. There were great difficulties to be overcome, arising from the nature of the ground and other circumstances; but Peter was not to be discouraged. Of late years, the facilitating of inland navigation has been a particular object of attention with the Russian government. The old canals have been improved, new ones have been completed, and others are either in progress or in contemplation. All these undertakings, however, have been exclusively projected and accomplished by the crown. The canal of Vyshnei Voloshok is justly regarded as unequalled for the extent of its navigation, accomplished by artificial means and with so little labour. Three versts was the whole distance which it was necessary to cut through, to unite the Volga with the rivers which communicate with the Baltic; and this distance having been cut through, a navigable channel was formed of at least 5,000 versts. About 4,000 vessels pass the canal annually. The nature of the voyage near the river Msta, where the fall of ground is considerable, is curious. The barges being all assembled by beat of drum, the sluices are opened, and they are rapidly hurried down the falls. In order to prevent accidents, large buoys are moored in the more difficult windings of the river, constructed and fixed in such a manner, as to wheel round the head

of the boat, when it strikes against them, if their sweeps have failed to direct their course. Cossacks also are stationed, who give notice above of any accident, on which the sluices are shut, and the current is thus stopped. The length of this dangerous passage is nearly thirty-three versts. The boats also are peculiar in their construction, with a view to adapt them to such perilous navigation. "Each boat is built slight and supple, and the freight is set apart by an open space of one or two feet in the middle, so as to give room for the play of the timbers of her frame, which is sometimes so shaken, that the two sides of the barge are brought to meet. To remount the cataracts is impossible; the vessels, therefore, are all burnt for firewood at St. Petersburgh." *

A variation of the national costume is observable among the female peasants of the district of Valdai, whose dress resembles that which is worn in some parts of Switzerland. A shift with full sleeves, a short petticoat, and coloured stockings, compose their summer dress. In winter, they wear over this a pelisse of lamb's-wool, lined with cloth and adorned with gold buttons and lace. The hair of the unmarried women as in most parts of Russia, is braided, and hangs to a great length down the back; a married woman is distinguished by having it trussed up. A handkerchief of coloured silk is their headdress.

At the village of Poschol, Dr. Clarke's sledge broke down; and this accident afforded him, he says, "a very interesting peep into the manners of the peasantry. The woman of the house was preparing a dinner for the members of her family, who were gone

* James, vol. ii. p. 138.

to church. It consisted only of a mess of pottage. Presently her husband, a boor, came in, attended by his daughters, with some small loaves of white bread, not larger than a pigeon's egg; these the priest had consecrated, and they placed them with great care before the *bogh*. Then the bowing and crossing commenced, and they began their dinner, all eating out of the same bowl. Dinner ended, they went regularly to bed, as if to pass the night there, crossing and bowing as before. Having slept about an hour, one of the young women, according to a custom constantly observed, called her father, and presented him with a pot of vinegar, or *quass*, the Russian beverage.* The man then arose, and a complete fit of crossing and bowing seemed to seize him, with interludes so inexpressibly characteristic and ludicrous, that it was very difficult to preserve gravity. The pauses of scratching and grunting, the apostrophes to his wife, to himself, and to his God, were such as Drunken Barnaby might have expressed in Latin, but which cannot be told in English."†

Vyshnei Voloshok, which gives its name to the canal that passes through the middle of the town, is a thriving place, situated on the River Tsna. Its stately, lively appearance forms a striking contrast to the miserable villages on this road. It contains upwards of 800 houses, many of which are of brick, three churches, two hospitals, and about 4,000 inhabitants. There are three fairs in the year. Lat. 57°

* The flavour of *quass*, (properly *kvass*,) Dr. Clarke says, is like vinegar and water. "It looks thick, and is unpalatable to strangers, but, by use, we became fond of it." Dr. Lyall says, that, when well fermented, "it is an acidulous, pleasant, and wholesome beverage."

† Clarke's Travels, vol. i. p. 45.

35′ 24″ N., long. 52° 55′ E. of Paris. It is 432 versts from St. Petersburgh, and 298 from Moscow.

In this and other parts of the great road between St. Petersburgh and Moscow, Mr. James was struck with the uncommon activity and extent of the transport trade. We seldom, he says, "met fewer than from four to six caravans daily, consisting of strings of twenty or thirty single-horsed carts, carrying half a tun each." They were in motion at all times and in all parts; so that whenever a plain was open to the view, "they appeared like ants crawling over the surface of the earth." Those on their route to St. Petersburgh were carrying thither the produce either of the immediate neighbourhood, or of the southern districts,—tallow, leather, bristles, hides, &c. Those returning from St. Petersburgh, carried sugar, coffee, logwood, and other articles for dyeing: a few of them were laden with English lead, which, Mr. James was informed, could be purchased at a cheaper rate than the metal brought from the Siberian mines.

Torshok, (or Torjok,) on the banks of the Tvertza, seventy-one versts from Vyshnei Voloshok, a large, straggling place, with no fewer than twenty churches, is famous for its holy spring, which attracts pilgrims from all parts, and for a large manufacture of Russian leather: this is tanned with oak bark in general, and coloured with cochineal, a perfume being added by the use of a certain oil, the nature of which is kept a secret. The town is described by Mr. James as pretty; the country is wild and bare. It is in lat. 57° 56′ N., long. 55° 35′ E. of Paris. The era of its foundation is uncertain; but the convent of St. Boris and St. Gleb is said to have been founded by St. Ephrem, as far back as the eleventh century, at which period it had already become a populous place.

It was then a dependency of Novogorod, and a frontier town of that republic, on the side of the principality of Tver, which has exposed it to repeated ravages by contending armies. On the fall of Novogorod, it became a dependency of Moscow. At length, after having been, at various times, sacked and pillaged, destroyed by fire, and devastated by pestilence, it was rebuilt in the reign of Catherine II., and finally annexed to the Government of Tver. It is now a place of some trade, and has, like Valdai, three fairs in the year: the population is estimated at 10,000 souls. At this place, Mr. James first observed an approach to the Oriental costume in the dress of the women, which consists of a small, double-horned coif, and a long, white shawl, enveloping the person from head to foot. Underneath this is worn a habit, fitted to the body, like a gown, and gorgeously ornamented, even among the lower classes; it is coloured blue or red, bordered with broad stripes of variegated lace, with open sleeves, and a profusion of foil and beads. The men were generally dressed in red shirts, worn over blue or white trowsers, their legs bound with thick rings of woollen or rags, and with shoes of linden bark. A hatchet, carried in the girdle, completes the portrait.

TVER.

Sixty-three versts from Torjok, is Tver, the capital of the government of that name, advantageously situated on the lofty banks of the Volga, (in lat. 57° 35′ 24″ N., long. 52° 55′ E. of Paris,) near the confluence of two of its tributaries, the Tvertza and the Tmaka, which enter it on opposite sides. A bridge of boats, 550 feet in length, thrown across this

noble river, connects the two parts of the city, which has a grand and wealthy appearance. It ranks, indeed, in the regularity of its streets and buildings, next to St. Petersburgh and Moscow. Besides the cathedral, erected in 1687, it contains thirty-four churches, two monasteries and a nunnery, three hospitals, a beautiful building called the "Prince's Palace," an archiepiscopal palace,* two tolerable inns, kept by foreigners,† other public buildings belonging to the local government, a theatre, good barracks, a bazar with handsome piazzas, and above 200 stone houses. The population is estimated at 15,000.‡ There are several endowed seminaries here, and other charitable institutions, and numerous shops and

* The archbishop's palace, Captain Cochrane says, resembles an English workhouse. The *ci-devant* archiepiscopal palace, however, is that which was appropriated for the Grand Dutchess of Oldenburg and her consort. — See VSEVOLOJSKY's *Dict.*

† When Dr. Clarke passed through Tver, in 1800, the only inn was kept by Milanese, — "a vagrant tribe," he adds, "whose industry and enterprise carry them from the Lake of Como to the remotest regions of the earth. I have seen them in all countries, even in Lapland."

‡ In Vsevolojsky's Dictionary, published at Moscow, in 1813, Tver is stated to contain only 27 churches, two convents, and 10,000 inhabitants. If the information given in the text, on the authority of Captain Cochrane, may be depended upon, the population would seem to have increased a third in eight years, which is prodigious. Seven churches and a monastery appear to have been erected since 1812. "The first circumstance," says Capt. C., "which attracted my notice upon reaching Tver, was at the gate, where an impost of *three large stones* is levied upon every horse that passes. These are converted to the paving of the city; nor will the tax appear either slight or useless in a country where stones are not very abundant." A young Frenchman, who had been five times wounded in the battle of Borodino, had settled at Tver as a teacher of his native tongue, and accompanied the Captain in his rambles here.

manufactories. Its principal wealth is owing to the trade it enjoys as an *entrepôt*, especially of articles conveyed overland to Riga. Immense quantities of grain are also exported hence for the capital, by the Russian Government. When Captain Cochrane was there, in 1820, 200 barges were lying off the city, loaded with that article, and with several millions of eggs. The average number of barges which pass by this town, is generally computed at 2,600. The boats employed on this river are singular alike in their construction, rigging, and management. The frequent shoals in the Volga and the other rivers which form this long internal navigation, render it necessary to make them flat-bottomed; they are constructed with new planks; these shrink, and the interstices are filled up, sometimes with thin slips of wood cramped with iron, and sometimes merely with tow. The rudder is a ponderous machine, and has a very singular appearance; the tiller is from 30 to 40 feet long; and the pilot who turns it, stands upon a scaffold at that distance from the stern. The rudder itself consists of a broad piece of timber, floating astern twelve or fifteen feet, and fastened to the tiller by a pole which descends perpendicularly into the water. These boats are generally provided with one mast, which, in the largest, may equal a frigate's mainmast. "The weight of the mat sail," Captain Cochrane says, "must be prodigious, having no fewer than 160 breadths in it; and yet, the facility with which it is managed, will bear comparison with that of the Yankees, with their boom mainsail in their fore-and-aft clippers. They are generally worked by from fifteen to forty people." The vessels are of all sizes, from that of a canoe to 1,000 tons. They are built

only for one voyage; and, on their arrival at St Petersburgh, are taken to pieces and sold for fuel.*

Tver is a very ancient city. The original fortress was built, in 1182, by the Great Duke of Vladimir, to protect his territories from the invasions of the people of Novogorod. Another citadel was built in 1240, and the foundation of a new town laid, which rapidly increased in population and wealth, so as to become the metropolis of an independent sovereignty. It was made an episcopal city in 1271. In 1490, it was annexed to the other dominions of Russia, and it has never since been dismembered. In the reign of the Grand Duke Alexander Michaelovitch, a massacre of the Tâtars took place here, when a tragical scene was exhibited, resembling that of the Sicilian vespers. But such atrocious deeds are no extraordinary occurrence in the Russian annals.

The country in the neighbourhood of Tver, Mr. Coxe states, produces, in abundant crops, wheat, rye, barley, oats, buck-wheat, hemp, and flax, and all sorts of vegetables. Its forests yield oak, birch, alder, poplar, mountain-ash, pines, firs, and junipers. Among the animal population are found elks, bears, wolves, and foxes, wild goats and hares; also, badgers, martens, weasels, ermines, ferrets, squirrels, and marmots. Mr. Coxe gives as the ornithological catalogue, eagles and falcons, cranes, herons, swans, wild geese and

* In order to prevent the excessive waste of timber arising from the general custom of forming planks with the axe, (which is followed not only by the peasants, but also by the shipwrights,) orders were issued, that each vessel passing by Tver, in which there was one plank fashioned by the hatchet, should pay a fine of 6*l*. By a strict enforcement of this penalty, which in the first year amounted to 6000*l*. the practice was put an end to in the course of four years, and the use of the saw introduced among the Russian shipwrights.

ducks, partridges, quails, woodcocks, and snipes; also crows, ravens, magpies, blackbirds, sparrows, and starlings; and, among the songsters, nightingales, linnets, larks, and yellow-hammers. The fish which are caught in the Volga, are salmon, sterlet, tench, pike, perch, groundling, gudgeons, and sometimes, but rarely, sturgeon and beluga. The sterlet of the Volga, so celebrated among Russian epicures, can be obtained in this town at all seasons of the year. This fish, which is supposed to be peculiar to the northern parts of the globe, is a species of sturgeon, distinguished by its smaller size, (those of the Volga being seldom more than two feet long, those of the Oby and Irtish about three feet,) and by its colour: it is highly esteemed for its flavour and delicacy, and the finest caviare is made from its roe. They are sometimes caught in the Gulf of Finland and in the Baltic; but these are supposed to have been stray fish.

About half way between Tver and Moscow is the small town of Klinn, which is not otherwise remarkable than as being the ancient patrimony of the reigning house of Romanof. It, is, however, the head town of the district, and contains four churches and upwards of 1,000 inhabitants. It stands on both banks of a little river named the Sestra. The country in this part has a pleasing appearance, immense herds and flocks, with well-peopled villages, greeting the eye in every direction. No other place occurs of any importance, before the rising towers and spires of Moscow are descried, at the distance of six versts from the city. The surrounding country is flat and open, and this ancient capital of the Muscovite, spreading over an immense district, equals, according to Dr. Clarke, in the majesty of its appearance from a distance, Rome itself. But he saw it before the

French invasion. We shall have to present to our readers a description, first, of the Moscow that was, and then, of Moscow as it is.*

MOSCOW.

St. Petersburgh has been styled the Northern Palmyra. If Moscow can be named in association with the Roman metropolis, it must be styled the Tartarian Rome. Sir Robert Ker Porter, who visited it in 1808, describes its appearance as "the most curious and *un-European*" of any city he ever beheld. "If," says Mr. Coxe, who was there in 1784, "I was struck with the singularity of Smolensko, I was all astonishment at the immensity and variety of Moscow. A city so irregular, so uncommon, so extraordinary, and so contrasted, had never before claimed my astonishment. The streets are, in general, exceedingly long and broad; some of them are paved; others, particularly those in the suburbs, are formed with trunks of trees, or are boarded with planks like the floor of a room. Wretched hovels are blended

* The following itinerary will, we believe, be found accurate:

From St. Petersburgh—	Versts.
To Tsarskoselo	22
— Novogorod	158
— Valdai	159
— Vyshnei Voloshok	93
— Torjok	71
— Tver	63
— Klinn	83
— Moscow	81
	730=487 miles

Capt Cochrane makes the distance from Tver to Moscow 168 versts, or about 96 miles, which he *walked* within 32 hours! It is performed in winter with a *khabitka* in 15 hours; about seven miles (nearly 11 versts) an hour.

with large palaces; cottages of one story stand next to the most superb and stately mansions; many brick structures are covered with wooden tops; some of the wooden houses are painted; others have iron doors and roofs. Numerous churches present themselves in every quarter, built in a peculiar style of architecture; some with domes of copper, others of tin, gilt or painted green, and many roofed with wood. In a word, some parts of this vast city have the appearance of a sequestered desert, other quarters that of a populous town; some of a contemptible village, others of a great capital. Moscow may be considered as a town built upon the Asiatic model, but gradually becoming more and more European; exhibiting, in its present state, a motley mixture of discordant architecture." The Prince de Ligne has happily expressed the same idea in a few words. "Moscow looks exactly as if three or four hundred great old *chateaus* nad come to live together, each bringing along with it its own little attendant village of thatched cottages." Dr. Clarke, who visited it in 1800, thus describes the impressions made by its appearance on his first arrival. "Numerous spires glittering with gold, amidst burnished domes and painted palaces, appear in the midst of an open plain, for several versts before you reach the Petersburgh gate. Having passed, you look about and wonder what has become of the city, or where you are; and are ready to ask once more, How far is it to Moscow? They will tell you, this is Moscow. And you behold nothing but a wide and scattered suburb,—huts, gardens, pig-sties, brick walls, churches, dunghills, palaces, timber yards, warehouses, and a refuse, as it were, of materials sufficient to stock an empire with miserable towns and miserable villages. One might imagine, all the states of Europe and Asia

had sent a building, by way of representative, to Moscow; and under this impression, the eye is presented with deputies from all countries, holding congress:—timber huts from regions beyond the Arctic; plastered palaces from Sweden and Denmark, not white-washed since their arrival; painted walls from the Tyrol; mosques from Constantinople; Tâtar temples from Bucharia; pagodas, pavilions, and virandas from China; cabarets from Spain; dungeons, prisons, and public offices from France; architectural ruins from Rome; terraces and trellices from Naples; and warehouses from Wapping. Having heard accouuts of the immense population of Moscow, you wander through deserted streets. Passing suddenly towards the quarter where the shops are situated, you might walk upon the heads of thousands. The daily throng is there so immense, that, unable to force a passage through it, or assign any motive that might convene such a multitude, you ask the cause, and are told that it is always the same. Nor is the costume less various than the aspect of the buildings: Greeks, Turks, Tâtars, Cossacks, Chinese, Muscovites, English, French, Italians, Poles, Germans, all parade in the habits of their respective countries."

This heterogeneous mixture of the Asiatic and European styles of architecture and costumes, strikes the traveller both in St. Petersburgh and Moscow; but the Asiatic in the latter is more pure, and greatly more predominant. Moscow is an ancient, St. Petersburgh a modern city. General and regular magnificence and beauty distinguish the one; the intermixture of glittering and gorgeous temples and palaces with the meanest hovels, distinguishes the other.

"The architecture exhibited in different parts of the Kremlin, in its palaces and churches, is unlike," continues Dr. Clarke, "any thing in Europe. It is

difficult to say from what country it has been principally derived. The architects were generally Italians; but the style is Tâtarian, Indian, Chinese, and Gothic. Here a pagoda, there an arcade! In some parts, richness and even elegance; in others, barbarism and decay. Taken altogether, it is a jumble of magnificence and ruin; old buildings repaired, and modern structures not completed; half-open vaults, and mouldering walls, and empty caves, amidst white-washed brick buildings, and towers and churches with glittering, gilded, or painted domes. In the midst of it, some devotees are daily seen entering a little mean structure, more like a stable than a church. This, they tell you, is the first place of Christian worship erected in Moscow. It was originally constructed of the trunks of trees, felled upon the spot, at the foundation of the city; but now it is of brick, built in imitation of the original wooden church. Its claims to antiquity cannot be great, as, according to accounts published in our own country, the whole city of Moscow was burned by the Tâtars of the Crimea, on the 24th of May, 1571: the old wooden church was probably then destroyed. There is nothing within the structure worthy of notice.

" The view of Moscow from the terrace in the Kremlin, near the spot where the artillery is preserved, would afford a fine subject for a panorama. The number of magnificent buildings, the domes, the towers, and spires, filling all the prospect, make it, perhaps, the most novel and interesting sight in Europe. All the wretched hovels and miserable wooden buildings, which appear in passing through the streets, are lost in the vast assemblage of magnificent edifices: among these, the Foundling Hospital, is particularly conspicuous. Below the walls of the

Kremlin, the Moskva, already become a river of importance, is seen flowing towards the Volga. The new promenade forming on its banks, immediately beneath the fortress, is a superb work, and promises to rival the famous quay at St. Petersburgh. It is paved with large flags, and is continued from the stone bridge to another, peculiarly called the Moskva Bridge, fenced with a light, but strong iron palisade, and stone pillars, executed in very good taste. A flight of stairs leads from this walk to the river, where the ceremony of the benediction of the water takes place. Another flight of wooden steps leads through the walls of the Kremlin, to an area within the fortress."

Mr. James visited Moscow in June 1814, when the traces of the conflagration which had arrested the progress of the French two years before, were still visible. "It was from the road, as it passes under the turrets of the Petrovsky Palace," he says, "that we first beheld the thousands of domes and steeples that yet glittered among the relics of Moscow; and a short hour brought us to the barriers. At our first entrance, only a few occasional symptoms of the conflagration occurred, and little that was of a nature to correspond to the gloomy appearance which we had been led to expect. But, as we advanced, the quarters of the *Slabode*, or fauxbourg, where wood had chiefly been used in building, exhibited destruction in its fullest extent, — for the most part, a *campagne rase*. Now and then, the shell of a house was seen standing in a blank space; or here and there, a few brick stoves yet remaining, pointed out the spot where a dwelling once had been. Moving onwards, we crossed the avenues of the boulevards · the trees were in full leaf and beauty, seeming to vary the view only to heighten

its melancholy aspect. Leaving this, we passed to the central parts of the town, that were constructed with more durable materials, exhibiting occasionally a richness and elegance of exterior that must have equalled, if not surpassed, the architectural magnificence of the most beautiful towns of Europe. But all was now in the same forlorn condition; street after street greeted the eye with perpetual ruin; disjointed columns, mutilated porticoes, broken cupolas, walls of rugged stucco, black, discoloured with the stains of fire, and open on every side to the sky, formed a hideous contrast to the glowing pictures which travellers had drawn of the grand and sumptuous palaces of Moscow. The cross lanes looked, even at this interval, as if unused to the sound of the human tread. The grass had sprung up amidst the mouldering fragments scattered over the pavements; while a low smoke, issuing perhaps from some obscure cellar corner, gave the only indications of human habitation, and seemed to make desolation visible.

"There are few towns whose quarters present a more simple plan of distribution. The ancient Kremlin and Kitaigorod are situated on a central eminence above the river Moskva; and around these, as a nucleus, the circles of the Beloigorod, the Semlianigorod, and the *Slabode*, or fauxbourg, are severally discernible, marking by their lines the growth of the place in successive eras. The Kitaigorod, or Tâtar-town, besides some religious buildings, contains within its walls the public exchange and the chief houses of trade. All these had been completely gutted by the fire, but the spirit of the place still remained: shops and stalls, and tents of every denomination, were erected amidst the ruins; and the chief street was even now the theatre of much bustle and activity. The

Kremlin is a large walled circle, containing many old churches, as well as the public offices and apartments of state; and hither we made a daily visit, as to a point that afforded the only specimen of the ancient magnificence of the capital of the grand dukes and the czars. It stood uninjured amidst the flames of the late conflagration; but the barbarous fury of Bonaparte attacked whatever Russian piety had spared; and with unutterable malignity, he marked out for devastation some of the fairest portions of this proud citadel. The most peremptory command was given to the detachment occupying the Kremlin, after his departure, to discharge their orders with despatch; the mines were prepared, and at two o'clock on the last night of their stay, this horrid purpose was carried into execution. By the first two explosions, part of the walls and one of the towers towards the river were destroyed; by the third, the church of St. Nicholas and the four great bells of Moscow were blown up with tremendous violence; at the same moment, the lofty tower of Ivan Veliki, the first of the czars, was rent from the top to its base, and the cross of the cupola crowning its summit, buried in ruin below. The fourth shock was by far the most dreadful; the walls of the arsenal, which were upwards of three yards in thickness, with a part of the gate of St. Nicholas, and several adjoining pinnacles, were at once blown into the air, a concussion succeeding, that shook the whole city to its foundations.

"A short time previously to the breaking out of the war, a ukase was issued by the emperor, ordering three and thirty churches at Moscow to be pulled down; by no means an unreasonable step, since the total number in the city and suburbs amounted to two thousand, and many of them were in a dilapidated

state. The common people, however, very generally entertained the idea, that their late calamities were owing to this act of impiety. The emperor has now vowed to erect a new church at Moscow, in commemoration of the deliverance of Russia, for which a design has been given by Mr. Wilbers, formerly a pupil of the academy at St. Petersburgh. A column, formed out of the cannon taken from the French, forms part of the design. The imperial palace, which stands on a point commanding the whole town, was the residence, as before stated, of Bonaparte. But even these walls, that had formed his abode, were given to destruction by his orders, and now shewed themselves in the most forlorn condition, stripped of every article, and completely gutted from top to bottom. The same scene of waste was exhibited in an interesting antique edifice, containing the chamber of the throne. As the public hall of audience at the coronation of the czars* and emperors, it had been often made the scene of festivities in this most pompous and splendid court. But now, not a vestige of ancient ornament could any where be traced; the activity of devastation had been great, and scarcely a beam or a stone rested one on the other. The other parts of the Kremlin remained untouched, and it was impossible to conceive a more imposing spectacle than was here afforded. A high terrace overhung the walls towards the river, at the extremity of which, to the left, appeared the fantastical structure of the Trinity

* "The title czar was borne by only two sovereigns of Russia. The word is a Slavonic translation of the Tatar khan, or king. In their translation of the Old Testament, it constantly occurs in this sense, the Czar Solomon, or Czar David, being the ordinary terms in use."

Church, and the awe-commanding portals of the Holy Gate, through which every passenger walks bare-headed. At the other end, was a cluster of domes rising from the church of St. Nicholas, that of the Assumption, and the chapel and palace of the czars, with the lofty temple of Ivan Veliki, towering far above them all, and reflecting the beams of the sun from a globe of gold. The palace of the czars does not boast an antiquity of more than two hundred years; but it is an edifice raised with princely costliness in the carved work with which that style abounds. This was one of the most shewy examples of the gorgeous architecture of the Kremlin, though the whole circle offered an assemblage of bright, gay colours, and a display of gaud and richness that vied with 'the wealth of Ormus and of Ind.' The cupolas and roofs were gilt, or stained green or red, the walls and towers covered with glazed tiles of blue, and white, and yellow; in other parts, adorned with storied paintings from Holy Writ; while a *mélange* was seen on every side, of pear-shaped domes, Tâtar battlements, Gothic tracery, Grecian columns, the star, the crescent, and the cross. Looking below, we beheld the stream of the Moskva, winding its course amidst the streets and houses of the town, all indeed now in ruin, but still interspersed with many a glittering steeple, with cottage, garden, and palace intermixed, and offering to view the endless variety of a Russian city. This scene was backed by an extensive landscape on the west, dotted with country houses and monasteries, and surmounted by the long, gloomy line of the Sparrow hills, over which the French army first shewed themselves, before the work of abomination was begun."*

* James's Journal, vol. ii. pp. 171—3, 196—204.

In the year 1818, when Dr. Macmichael was at Moscow, although many vestiges of the conflagration were still visible, "the great advance made toward obliterating the traces of disaster were almost inconceivable." Within the precincts of the Kremlin, every building had been renovated. The court was at this time established in the ancient capital of the czars. "The Empress Mother occupied the *bel étage* of one of the chief palaces; and the standard of Alexander waved over the former residence of Napoleon." The Kitaigorod, as well as the greater part of the Semlianoigorod and the Slabode, appeared entirely rebuilt; but the palaces of the nobles remained much in the same state in which they had been left by the fire, and there was no likelihood of their being speedily repaired. Captain Cochrane, however, who passed through Moscow in 1820, speaks of the city as even then only half rebuilt, and the streets half finished, brick and mortar every where incommoding the passenger. "In every other respect than that of population," he says, "I found Moscow the same as in Clarke's time, beautiful and rich, grotesque and absurd, magnificent and mean. Although much of the singular appearance of the Kremlin has been obviated in the restored buildings, yet, it is still far from regular. The new imperial palace is wholly undeserving the name; and only that a building is wanted for the use of the imperial family, and that there was a vacancy upon the site on which it stands, it would call loudly for another fire-brand."

The latest as well as the fullest account of Moscow, is furnished by Dr. Lyall, who resided for some years in Russia as domestic physician to the Countess Orlof Chesmenska, and left that capital so lately as 1823.

"Ever since the departure of the court in 1818," he informs us, "the renovation, improvement, and embellishment of the metropolis have been carried on with astonishing energy and success, and still continue to advance with rapid strides. The most remarkable recent improvements are, the formation of Alexander's Garden, a magnificent promenade; the replacement of a desert triangular space near the Smith's Bridge, formerly a receptacle of filth and abomination, by regular streets and enormous piles of edifices; the levelling of the earthern ramparts and fortifications round the eastern walls of the Kitaigorod, and the substitution of streets and markets in their room; the embellishment of the north front of the tribunals and of the shops along the course of the now invisible Neglinnaya; the almost total renewal of that mighty mass, the Petrovskoi Theatre; the repairs of the sumptuous mansions of the nobles; and the arrangement of new places, new streets, and new markets. By the burning of innumerable small, sombre, wooden houses and hovels, and by the superior and tasteful manner in which most of the city is rebuilt, Moscow has greatly changed its appearance. That wonderful mixture of magnificent palaces and paltry huts, so often mentioned by foreigners, though still to be remarked in a few places, does not so powerfully strike the eye of the stranger. In one word, Moscow is daily losing her Asiatic features, and assimilating herself to the other capitals of Europe. From this observation, however, I am happy to add, that the Kremle must be exempted: its ancient singularity and grandeur are preserved complete."*

* Lyall's Character of the Russians, &c. 4to. pp. 525, 6.

Taken as a whole, says Dr. Lyall, the Kremle* "is one of the most singular, beautiful, and magnificent objects I have ever beheld. Its commanding situation on the banks of the Moskva river, its high and venerable white walls, with numerous battlements, variously coloured towers, and steeples; the number and the magnificence of some of its fine edifices, with their differently painted roofs; the variety of its cathedrals, churches, monasteries, and belfries, with their almost innumerable domes, gilt, tin-plated, or green;—indeed, the whole picture presents at the same time a varied unity,—a consonance and incongruity of objects,—a contrast of ancient and modern works of art and taste,—a beauty, grandeur, and magnificence indescribable and altogether unique. To be conceived, it must be seen; and when seen, it never fails to excite astonishment and delight." All travellers agree, that the view of the city from this place, especially from St. Ivan's tower, surpasses every other, both in singularity and splendour. Towards the south, are seen a crowd of churches with their innumerable domes and belfries; a variety of palaces, private mansions, and public edifices, especially the immense Foundling Hospital; open spaces, fields, gardens, market-places; the winding Moskva river, with its quays and romantic banks. In the distance, are seen the Sparrow hills, clothed with dark wood, and here and there, a detached village, monastery, or church, in the midst of beautiful and varied environs, diversified by hill and dale, woods, and cultivated fields. The view towards the west takes in more of the

* So, Dr. Lyall tells us, the word should be written, being derived from the Tâtar word *krim* or *krem*, a fortress. The citadels of Novogorod, Casan, Nijni-Novogorod, and Susdal, bear the same appellation.

Kremlin and its walls, and an immense portion of the city, with more level environs. On the north-east, several large and splendid public buildings are seen, and, beyond them, romantic ground on the banks of a small river, and an immense extent of the city, varied by open spaces, gardens, markets, and the broken and elevated banks of the Moskva river. The environs in this direction are very fine, but in general more level, woody, and gloomy than those which the view from the south comprises.

The Kremlin is situated on the north side of the Moskva, which, in this part, bends into the form of a crescent. Its shape is triangular, the circumference about two miles. A high wall surrounds it, strongly built of brick, faced at the foundation with stone. There are five gates; at four of these there are steeples, and there are numerous watch-towers. In passing through one of the gates, called *Spaskiya Vorotui*, or the Gate of Our Saviour, every male, from the sovereign to the peasant, takes off his hat, and remains uncovered: if a stranger neglect this, a sentinel directs or forces him to comply. Of the turrets with which the walls of the Kremlin are ornamented, almost all are of a square base and pyramidal elevation, yet exhibiting different styles of architecture. The most interesting is that immediately to the south of Our Saviour's Gate, on which was anciently suspended the alarm-bell, and from which the ancient sovereigns of Muscovy used to witness or superintend the infliction of punishments, and the celebration of festivals.

There are no regular streets in the Kremlin, but three open spaces called *plostchads*, or squares, of a very irregular shape, and abundance of room otherwise, for the numerous carriages and foot-passengers

with which, in summer, it is always crowded. The houses have in general stone foundations: in all cases, the superstructure consists of brick stuccoed and painted, generally in the most gaudy colours. None of the houses belong to private individuals; the whole being the property of the crown. Beside the government-offices, the Kremlin contains the palace, the senate-house, the arsenal, the imperial museum, and a number of cathedrals, churches, and monasteries, among which is the most splendid church in all Moscow, and the most sacred edifice in the empire, viz. the cathedral of the Assumption of the Virgin Mary. It was built in 1479, on the site of the original edifice, and exhibits a specimen of the Greco-Italian architecture of the fifteenth century. It is loaded with ornaments to a most curious and extravagant degree. On the walls are painted 249 full images, and 2,066 half-lengths and heads, many larger than nature. The quantity of gold leaf employed in embellishing it, is said to have amounted to 210,000 leaves. Images gaudily adorned, splendidly gilt and ornamented holy books, massy gold crosses of beautiful workmanship, rich episcopal vestments; in short, every article that can impress the observer with a striking idea of the magnificence and shew of the Greek service, are here to be seen in the greatest profusion. The lustres are particularly magnificent and costly. In the middle of the church is suspended a crown of massy silver, accompanied with forty-eight chandeliers, all of a single piece, and weighing nearly 3,000 lbs. There are also numerous candlesticks, "almost as high as a man," some of silver, others of copper silvered, holding candles "as thick as a man's leg."

The cathedral of St. Michael ranks next to this in

splendour and dignity. It is venerated by the Russians as the place where their sovereigns were formerly interred, while the cathedral of the Assumption is honoured by being the place where they are crowned. The bodies of the Russian sovereigns are contained in raised sepulchres, formed in the shape of a coffin. All the czars, from the time that Moscow became the seat of empire, to the close of the seventeenth century, (with the exception of one,) are here deposited. This cathedral was originally built in 1333; and after various repairs and alterations, it was put nearly in its present state by the Empress Catherine in 1772.

The palace of the czars, next to these two cathedrals, is the object most worthy of notice within the Kremlin. Dr. Lyall says, that this palace "is probably the most notable instance of constant change and renovation among all the large and more ancient edifices of Moscow:" in consequence of this, the descriptions given of it by travellers differ very widely, even when but a short time had elapsed between the periods of their respective visits. In the year 1820, it consisted of three parts; the ancient palace of the czars, the audience-chamber, and the new palace. The ancient palace was built by an Italian architect at the beginning of the sixteenth century; but the style of it is so singular, that it has been called Grecian, Gothic, Tâtar, and Hindoo. In the Belvidere are two small arched rooms, which were the czar's peculiar apartments. They communicated, by a narrow staircase, with an observatory, "a kind of royal police-box," where, at a certain fixed hour, the czar daily took his station, while crowds of supplicants assembled in the courts below, deposited their petitions upon a large stone adjoining the small church called

Spas na Baru. These petitions were brought to the sovereign, who examined them, and dictated the answers, which were in like manner laid on the same stone till the petitioners came to receive them. Peter the Great was born in the old palace. The new palace was originally built in 1748, by the Empress Elizabeth; but it has been repeatedly altered and enlarged. The Empress Catherine formed the project of erecting a most magnificent palace in the Kremlin. The plan was actually executed, and a superb model of it still exists in the Imperial Museum. This model, according to Dr. Clarke, is one of the most curious things in Moscow. "If the work had been completed," he remarks, "it would have been the wonder of the world. The architect who constructed the plan, was a Russian who had studied at Paris. This model cost 50,000 rubles. The expense necessary for the accomplishment of the undertaking, (as the architect Camporesi, who made the estimate, assured us,) would have been fifty millions of rubles. The calculation laid before the empress, stated the amount only at twenty millions. The work was begun, but, it is said, the falling in of a part of the foundation, determined the empress against its prosecution. The plan was, to unite the whole Kremlin, having a circumference of two miles, into one magnificent palace. Its triangular form, and the number of churches it contains, offered some difficulties; but the *model* was rendered complete. Its fronts are ornamented with ranges of beautiful pillars, according to different orders of architecture. Every part of it was finished in the most beautiful manner, even to the fresco painting on the ceiling of the rooms, and the colouring of the various marble columns intended to decorate the interior. It encloses a theatre and magnificent

apartments. Had the work been completed, it would have surpassed the Temple of Solomon, the Propylæum of Amasis, the Villa of Adrian, or the Forum of Trajan."

None of the apartments of the new palace are very large; but they are furnished in a most superb and expensive manner. "Inlaid floors of various figures and colours, of oak and other wood; beautiful Wilton and Russian carpets, tapestry-covered walls of all shades; immensely large looking-glasses, some of which have many flaws, and others are joined; tables of mahogany, of Siberian beech, of nat-wood, stained and unstained, gilt and ungilt, of marble, of imitation *lapis lazuli*, and of malachite; chairs of the same woods, plain or covered with silk, and gilded; large crystal and bronze lustres, and a crowd of other ornaments, are all found here." The audience-chamber, originally built at the close of the fifteenth century, was burnt in the year 1812; but it is now completely repaired and fitted up after its former style: its architecture is very simple. The *Granovitaya Palata*, or square hall, from which the whole edifice takes its name, is a room about sixty-five feet square. "In its centre rises an enormous square and highly gilt pillar, which loses itself by expansion into the arches, and with them supports the ceiling: the vaults are four in number, and each is crossed by a gilt twisted stucco cord, which has a good effect. Over each window are the arms of three of the governments of Russia. The walls are covered with crimson velvet, bronze chandeliers, and gilded ornaments, and the floor is overlaid with red cloth. Numerous lustres are suspended from the ceiling. The base of the central pillar is surrounded with shelves, on which, on great occasions, are arranged the gold and silver

utensils and vessels belonging to the court. The throne on the south side is equally elegant with that in the palace. The room is disfigured by a number of seats like an orchestra, in one of the chambers. Opposite the throne and near the roof, is a semi-lunar window, from whence the imperial family, when not present in the hall, could observe the ceremonies after the coronation in the cathedral of the Assumption, or witness the reception of ambassadors by his majesty. When the court is at Moscow, balls are frequently given in this hall. On occasion of a ball in 1818, it was illuminated by 3,500 wax candles, and presented a most magnificent appearance."

Among the numerous churches included within the Kremlin, that of St. Philip is distinguished as containing the patriarchal treasury, the riches of which consist of manuscripts and books, mitres and sacerdotal dresses and ornaments, vessels for the preparation of the holy oil and relics of saints. The most valuable manuscripts are those of the Slavonic New Testament, which date as far back as the eleventh and twelfth centuries. Dr. Lyall was shewn "a small parchment volume a good deal sullied, said to be the Gospel of St. Luke in his own hand-writing" — in what language and character, he does not state; perhaps the Slavonic also! There is a copy of the Evangelists in Slavonian, written by the Tsarevna Tatiana Michailovna, daughter of the Tsar Michail Pheodorovitch. Among the sacred vessels are a large gilt *rukomoinik** (hand-basin), and an "enormously large

* For this word, Dr. Lyall says, we have no precisely corresponding word in English. "The Russians deem it unclean to wash with or even to touch the same water twice. On this account, from the rude earthen vessel suspended by a rope in the yard, or near the door of his house, which the peasant pours out in washing

shallow basin for the ceremony of washing the Apostles' feet." The vessels for the preparation of the holy oil, consist of two large silver kettles or boilers, gilt inside, two feet and a half in diameter, which, together with silver stirrers and ladles, were presented to the holy synod by the Empress Catherine II. Between these boilers stands a large silver receiver, on the cover of which is a representation of Samuel anointing Saul. This also was a present of the empress. They weigh altogether upwards of 700 lbs. From the receiver, the oil is emptied into sixteen elegant silver vases presented to the synod by the Emperor Paul. The "holy oil" is made only once a year with great ceremonies.

The belfry of Ivan Velikii, or Great John, stands nearly at an equal distance from the cathedrals of the Assumption and St. Michael. It is visible from almost every part of the city, and to a great distance on the approach to it from the east, south, and west, and was used by the French as an observatory and signal-post. They attempted to blow it up before their departure in 1812, and the tower was rent from top to bottom; but it is now completely repaired. From the bottom to the top of the cross, it is 269 feet and a half high. The number of the bells is 33, many of which have inscriptions and peculiar names; Dr. Lyall

himself, to the brass, silver, or gold *rukomoinik* in the dwelling of the merchant, or in the palace of the nobleman, every habitation is furnished with a cistern of water. The cistern is generally made of brass, except among the peasants, and is placed against the wall, with a basin below it. It has a mechanical invention, so that by pushing up a plug, you empty as little or as much water as you please, and wash yourself with it during its fall into a large brass basin called a *taz*. Now it is becoming more common for a man-servant to pour the water from a crystal bottle upon his master's hands."

enumerates ten; the smallest of which weighs 7000 pounds English, and the largest 124,289. On festivals, they are tolled almost without intermission, and with but little variations, from an early hour till the evening; the peasantry, and the Russians generally, being extremely fond of Ivan Velikii's music. The great bell of Moscow, the wonder of the world, stands in an immense cavity on the east side of this belfry. In 1812, the ruins of the belfry fell into the cavity, and covered the bell. When the court arrived at Moscow in 1817, it was uncovered and again surrounded with a rail. Dr. Lyall took great pains to ascertain the history of this bell, and its exact size and weight. According to him, it originally contained 8000 *poods* weight, and was cast in 1654. Being destroyed by fire, it was recast, and 2000 additional poods of metal added to it in 1734. At this time, it was actually suspended over the place where it was cast, at no great height.* In 1737, the wooden edifice erected over it took fire, and the bell becoming hot, was most probably cracked in consequence of cold water being

* Dr. Clarke roundly asserts, that the bell was never suspended; that the Russians might as well attempt to suspend a first-rate line-of battle ship, with all her guns and stores. The first bell, however, which contained 8000 poods weight of metal, is expressly stated by Korb, who visited Moscow in 1698, to have been suspended by a great number of beams and cross-beams; and it was rung by forty or fifty men, one half on each side, who, by means of ropes, pulled the clapper. An inscription on the bell itself states, that it began to announce Divine Service A.D. 1668, and continued to be used till 1701, when in consequence of a great fire in the Kremle, it was damaged. Whether the second bell, cast from the first, with the addition of 2000 poods of copper, in 1734, was ever suspended, appears doubtful, but certainly not impossible. Hanway states, that it had been hung, and that the sound of it amazed and deafened, rather than delighted the inhabitants. He estimates the weight at 443,772lbs. English; value, at 3*s.* per pound, 65,681*l.* It may justly be styled the *tsar kolokol*, the emperor of bells.

thrown upon it to extinguish the flames. An inscription on it, recording its second casting, expressly states its weight at 10,000 poods, equal to 360,000 English pounds. According to the measurement of Mr. Murray, an English engineer, the height, if it had been a *full* cast, would have been twenty-one feet; it is actually only twenty feet seven inches. The greatest diameter at the mouth of the bell, is twenty-two feet eight inches. The top of the bell, or double ring, measures three feet one inch. Dr. Clarke makes the circumference sixty-seven feet four inches; the perpendicular height, twenty-one feet four and a half inches; and the thickness of the metal, in its stoutest part, twenty-three inches. The top of the crack is five feet seven inches from the ground. The clapper, which lies at the foot of Ilan Velikii, is fourteen feet long. On festivals, the peasants visit this bell as they would resort to a sanctuary, regarding it as an act of devotion, crossing themselves all the way as they descend and ascend the steps.

Among the wonders of the Kremlin, the Great Gun must not be omitted. It is placed on the south side of the grand entrance to the arsenal. It is sixteen feet long, and the diameter of its calibre nearly three feet. There are also eight other large guns arranged round the Kremlin, and 900 cannon and howitzers taken from the French, surround the arsenal.

The Imperial Museum in the Kremlin contains little worth notice. Costly robes, especially a vest twelve yards long, worn by Catherine II. during her coronation, the crowns of conquered kingdoms, the long ivory comb with which the czars formerly combed their beard, the code of laws of the several provinces of the empire, collected by the father of Peter the Great, a toilette of amber, and some national curiosi-

ties, are the objects of most interest and importance. There are also some curious and characteristic memorials of Peter the Great: among these are, a pair of enormous boots, funnel-shaped at the top; an immense tankard; his pocket-book; his portrait, which was worn by Prince Mentchikof; his crystal cup; some pieces of mechanism of his own execution, in turnery; a crystal cup, with a ducat embedded in its substance of the same year in which the sovereign himself blew the cup; a model of a ship in silver gilt, which was sent from Holland to that emperor, &c.

The alarm-bell, suspended in a tower before the Kremlin, was brought from Novogorod when that city was conquered in 1477. There it had been used as a signal for the people of that republic to assemble from all quarters, in the event of foreign danger or intestine tumult; and they regarded its removal to Moscow as the sure prelude of their departing liberty.

The second grand division of Moscow, the Kitaigorod, or Chinese-town,* is larger than the Kremlin. It contains the university, the printing-house of the synod, several public buildings, the tradesmen's shops, and the only street in the city in which the houses are contiguous. Its form is that of an oblong square; all the sides are flanked by walls, furnished with bat-

* This is supposed to be a Tâtar appellation, but its etymology is doubtful. Voltaire, without giving his authority, says, "*La partie appellée la ville Chinoise, oules raretés de la Chine s'étaillent.*" This is probably nothing more than a random conjecture. *Kitai*, Dr. Lyall says, certainly means China in Russ, whence the word Cathay. On the other hand, the appellation originated with the Tâtars; and there are said to be two other towns of the same name, one in the Ukraine, and one in Podolia. Query, whether the word may not mean the East, and Khitai be the east country, —Khitaigorod, the east quarter, *i. e.* east of the Kremle?

tlements, towers, and gates. The Kitaigorod is the most European part of Moscow. One of the most striking objects in this division, is the *Krasnaya Plostchad*, or Beautiful Place; one of the largest, handsomest, and most singular squares in Europe, or perhaps in the world. It is 1,260 feet long, and its greatest breadth 434 feet. During the summer, it is one of the chief promenades. The markets and bargaining shops in this division of the city, exhibit a novel and entertaining spectacle; and of these, the dead-fish market is certainly one of the greatest curiosities in Moscow. No sooner has the winter so far advanced that the sledge-roads are passable, than a large supply of fish is regularly brought from Archangel, and from a great lake in the Government of Novogorod. These are piled up like walls, snow serving to fill the insterstices. The sterlet, sturgeon, and beluga, or great sturgeon, are always in great supply, and cheap. In March 1819, Dr. Lyall saw, in this market, a beluga of immense size; it weighed 2,450 pounds English, and the head alone 320 pounds. It had been caught in the Dwina. The bargaining shops form a great range of buildings on the east side of the Beautiful Place. In Moscow, as in nearly all the towns of Russia, the principal shops resemble the bazars of the East; they are all together, and the merchants live at a distance, coming to their shops early in the morning, and returning at dusk to their houses. There are regular markets in different parts of the city, where all kinds of articles may be purchased; but when a person wishes to have a choice, or to buy a variety of articles at the same time, he generally goes to the bargaining shops. The total number of these is said to be 6,000. Besides being

doubly locked at night, they are all sealed up, a piece of cord or thread being twined round the padlock, and soft wax with an impression affixed over the ends or on the door. A Russian, according to Dr. Lyall, will not readily break a seal; this he deems particularly sacred. To break a lock is, in his opinion, of less consequence.

The Beloigorod, or White-town, the third grand division of Moscow, nearly encircles the two divisions already described; it derives its name from a white wall with which it was formerly enclosed, but of which scarcely a vestige now remains. In its stead, a spacious and elegant boulevard has been formed, which adds much to the beauty of the city, and affords a fine promenade for the inhabitants. In 1787, when Mr. Coxe visited Moscow, this division of the city exhibited a grotesque groupe of churches, convents, palaces, brick and wooden houses, and mean hovels. The hovels were consigned to the flames in 1812; very few wooden houses are left, and no more are allowed to be erected. This division contains many fine palaces of the nobles, six monasteries, several churches, the university, the foundling-hospital, the Bible Society house, the great provision-market, and the fruit-market. The university was built on its present site in 1786, by the Empress Catherine II. Lectures are here given on Russian law, the Latin language, arithmetic, mathematics, and natural philosophy, ancient and modern history, moral philosophy, medicine, the Pandects, logic and metaphysics, botany and anatomy, and the French and German languages. There are a great number of professors and teachers, and the expense of the establishment is immense; yet, there are only 100 students, who are admitted at the public cost.

Of the societies in Moscow which have for their object the advancement of scientific knowledge, the Imperial Society of Natural History, which meets in this division of the city, deserves particular notice. The design of this institution was, to form a *depôt* for the discoveries in natural history made in this vast empire. It was established in 1804; and when the French took Moscow in 1812, it was very flourishing. Unfortunately, however, the museum in which all its collections were deposited, was burned. But its members are exerting themselves with unabated ardour to repair the loss, and the institution promises fair to be of great service to the cause of science in Russia.

Perhaps, no building erected since the calamity of 1812, excites more astonishment, even in Moscow, than the Exercise-house, erected in 1817. This enormous edifice is 560 feet in length, the breadth at each end is 168 feet, and the height from 42 to 43½ feet. The mechanical construction of the roof is the most surprising part of it: although of such length, breadth, and weight of materials, it rests merely on the walls. In "the garret" of this building, the number of beams and cross-beams which present themselves, remind the visiter of an enormous man-of-war on the stocks.

The Foundling Hospital was established in 1763, and is supported by voluntary contributions, legacies, &c. It is an immense institution, though still unfinished. The policy and humanity of such institutions is very questionable; but, if they are to exist, none can be better instituted in all respects than this at Moscow.* Both sexes are taught reading, writing,

* Before this institution was established at Moscow, infanticide is said to have been dreadfully prevalent. The number of *daily* admissions, Dr. Lyall says is great. The lying-in house connected

and arithmetic; besides which, the boys are occasionally employed in different manufactures, and, at the age of fourteen, are taught some trade; and the girls learn to knit, net, sew, spin, weave lace, and perform all kinds of household work. Such of either sex as display superior talents, are taught the French and German languages, music, drawing, dancing, &c. At twenty years old, a sum of money is given them to enable them to begin business; and they are vested with the privilege of following their trade in any part of the empire,—a very great one in a country where all the peasants are slaves, and where none can leave their villages without the permission of their master. In other respects, their treatment indicates greater liberality and freedom than might have been expected in Russia. The highest class of boys have access to a small library, a collection of natural history, and a philosophical apparatus. It is obvious, indeed, from the tenour and details of most of the plans pursued by the present emperor for the education of his subjects, and especially his patronising and encouraging Bible Societies, which must stimulate thought and inquiry, that he is unwittingly preparing his subjects for a much freer form of government than that under which they have hitherto laboured.

A very large collection of documents illustrative of the history, religion, laws, poetry, literature, &c. of Russia, are deposited in the archives of the College for Foreign Affairs, which is in this division of the city. In the same division is another office, peculiar, we believe, to this empire, the Office or College of General Provision or Guardianship. "In every pro-

with it likewise admits all applicants without inquiry and without expense. The baleful tendency of such an institution upon public morals needs not be pointed out.

vince of the Russian empire is a tribunal under the name of the College of General Provision, to which is entrusted the care of all establishments which are intended for the alleviation of human misery, those excepted that have particular privileges or charters. To these belong public schools, orphan houses, hospitals and infirmaries, receptacles for the poor, houses for incurables, madhouses, workhouses, and houses of correction."

The Moscow Bible Society occupy what was formerly *La Chancellerie Secréte*, or office of secret affairs; a species of star-chamber or inquisition, abolished by the present emperor. It is a large, massy edifice, and was munificently given to the Bible Society by its imperial patron in 1818. "What a contrast!" remarks Dr. Lyall, "from being an inquisition, to become, in a mild reign, the depository of thousands of Bibles and New Testaments in about twenty languages!" This Society, which is a branch of the St. Petersburgh (now called the Russian) Bible Society, was established in July, 1813.

The fourth grand division of Moscow, the Semlianoigorod, or Earthen Town, derived its name from having been originally surrounded with an earthen rampart, few vestiges of which now remain. When Mr. Coxe visited Moscow, this division, as well as the Beliogorod, exhibited a grotesque groupe of churches, convents, palaces, and mean hovels; but in 1812, a great part of this division was burnt, and the poorer houses have not been rebuilt, while those of a higher order have been rebuilt or repaired, partly of wood and partly of stone. One of the most singular edifices is the *Vinnoi Dvore*, the *depôt* for *votki*, a spirituous liquor. It occupies a very large space, and forms two squares. "In this great

magazine are deposited the spirits, or *votki*, made at the distilleries belonging to the crown, or brought from the country by the distillers, and sold to the crown, according to special regulations. From this *depôt*, all Moscow and its neighbourhood, that is, all the drinking-houses as well as private individuals, are supplied with *votki* in abundance. The buildings have enormously thick walls, and are all vaulted. In them and the court-yards are lodged thousands of barrels of the precious *votki*, the nectar of the Russian peasants, which is measured in strength by the hydrometer, and sold according to law. Good *votki* by no means deserves the reproach thrown upon it by some travellers. As sold in the *kabaks* and in the shops, it is generally diluted and adulterated, and certainly is a fiery, slowly-operating poison. It resembles Scotch whiskey. It is a kind of proof spirit, according to pharmaceutical phraseology. It is called brandy by the mistakes of travellers, and sometimes Russian brandy."

The Slobodi, or suburbs, the fifth and last division of Moscow, are an immense, irregular polygon, completely surrounding the Semlianoigorod. These suburbs are thirty-five in number. Some of them contain a mixture of stone and wooden houses, interspersed with hovels and superb mansions; but most of them may be justly denominated villages in town, as there is a large proportion of unenclosed land in pasture, under cultivation, or lying waste. The most important as well as the handsomest of the suburbs, is called *Nemetskaya Sloboda*. The etymological origin of this appellation illustrates a curious fact in the history of language, shewing the transition of words from their primitive import to meanings very remote. The noun *nemets* in the Russian language originally means a dumb person;

its secondary sense is a stranger, evidently thus applied, because strangers ignorant of the Russian, might not improperly be called dumb: by the next transition in its meaning, it was applied to a German. "This transition," Dr. Lyall observes, "may be easily explained. The Germans have always been by far more numerous in Russia than the emigrants of any other nation, and hence they may have been called *Nemetski*, or foreigners, at first; and afterwards, this term may have become synonomous with the Germans." In the suburb alluded to, there was formerly a German colony, and many artists and mechanics of that nation still reside in it. Of the monasteries and churches in the suburbs, the Spaso Andronieff monastery attracts the notice of the stranger at a distance, on account of its fine spire. It was built by a Russian architect, and, like many other buildings in Moscow and other cities of the empire, affords a striking proof of the taste and skill of the native architects. The spire, which has a massy foundation, consists of four stories. The first, which is very elevated, has a tower, surmounted by a cross on each side: through this is a high, elegant, arched entrance, with a fine iron gate, over which is an image of our Saviour, called "The image not made with hands." The second story is adorned with columns of the Doric order; and the other two stories, with Corinthian columns and with arches for the bells. The spire terminates in a tapering pear-shaped head, with fluted sides, over a ball, and bearing the cross, all highly gilded.

In the year 1819, Moscow contained six cathedrals, 21 monasteries, and 267 Greek churches. "Every monastery and church has its festival on the day of the saint to whom it is dedicated. These festivals are days of great rejoicing, mirth, and folly. In the

country, the whole peasantry of the village where the festival is to be celebrated, as well as the peasantry in the neighbouring villages, assemble and attend the celebration of Divine worship, during which they pay particular devotion before the image of the saint to whom the church is dedicated. The same ceremony takes place at all the churches in town. But on the festivals of the cathedrals and monasteries, there is a holy procession from the cathedral of the Assumption, of a greater or smaller number of the clergy, according to the importance of the festival. They walk on foot, with uncovered heads, in regular order, accompanied by the holy banners, crosses, books, &c. and are protected from the crowd by the police and gens d'armes on horseback. The image of the saint to whom the church is dedicated, is peculiarly distinguished, and numerous burning candles are placed before it."

The Donskoi monastery, situated in the suburbs, is one of the first class. Of its festival, held on the 19th August, Dr. Lyall gives the following characteristic description. "The fête begins with the chiming of the bells and Divine service, the completion of which is the signal for general mirth,—in fact, for the commencement of a Bartholomew fair. Crowds of visiters arrive throughout the day, and pay their devotions before the image of the Donskaya, Holy Mother of God. In the evening, at the entrance under the north belfry, is placed an image of the Virgin Mary, with abundance of holy water. Every visiter makes his devotions before this image, is sprinkled with holy water by a priest, deposits his charity, and passes into the interior. I remarked, that the peasantry are really sprinkled with dexterity and in very rapid succession, but that the priest slowly dropped the water from the end of the brush into the hands of the nobi-

lity, and with it they rubbed their faces. For some days preceding this fête, many hands are employed in erecting tents, puppet-shows, stands of various kinds, horizontal and vertical swinging machines,—indeed, all the scenery which characterises a fair in England. On the plain before the monastery are grocers' stalls, cook-shops, fish-shops, taverns and kabaks; also tea-tents, in which the gipsies sing, dance, &c. A great variety of fruit and vegetables is here to be found; and a number of circular elegant tents are elevated, around the interior of which are placed numerous great copper pots or tubs, filled with *votki*. The persons employed to sell this nectar of the day, can scarcely answer the demands of the crowd, who, according to the quantity they purchase, receive it in a larger or smaller unglazed shallow, earthern vessel, for which a deposite is given till returned. Spots of ground by the north wall of the monastery, are covered with water-melons in great profusion.

"What attracts our greatest attention, are crowds of peasantry every where squatted upon the field; men, women, and children, married and unmarried, forming different parties, and enjoying their various refreshments, while some others obtain a place within the drinking-tents, or the tea-tents. All bellow forth their rude, untutored music, in merry chorus, especially after the *votki* has exhilarated their spirits, and the air resounds with the noise of revelry. In eating and drinking, dancing and singing, ogling and courting, enjoyment takes a hundred forms. Then come quarrels and abuse: drunkenness, and rolling, and tumbling, usually conclude the day. Such a fête is a perfect Russian scene, where much of the low, national manners and customs of the people may be studied. The police are stationed every where about

the monastery, to preserve order, and to regulate the procession of the innumerable carriages of the nobility, and especially of the merchants, who arrive at the monastery in the afternoon, perform their devotions, and then see the fair. As soon as the twilight approaches, the police interdict the sale of *votki;* but when the weather is fine, great exertions are requisite to disperse the crowd, so that it is eleven or twelve o'clock at night before the curtain drops."

The national customs and manners of the lower people of Moscow may be properly studied at this fête; but the splendour, pomp, and magnificence which this city exhibits on other occasions at the religious festivals, may not inaptly be contrasted with it. Of the three grand ceremonies at Lent and Easter, the third and most magnificent is celebrated two hours after midnight on the morning of Easter Sunday. It is called the ceremony of the Resurrection. The night before, all the markets and shops of Moscow are filled with flesh, butter, eggs, poultry, pigs, and every kind of food. Every foot-passenger has his hands and even his arms filled with provisions, and the droskies are ready to break down beneath their weight. Dr. Clarke says, that the ceremony of the Resurrection at Moscow exceeds every thing of the kind at Rome, not even excepting the papal benediction during the holy week. He thus describes the extraordinary scene. "At midnight, the great bell of the cathedral tolled; its vibrations seemed to be the rolling of distant thunder; and they were instantly accompanied by the noise of all the bells of Moscow. Every inhabitant was stirring, and the rattling of carriages in the streets was greater than at noon-day. The whole city was in a blaze; lights were seen in all the windows, and innumerable torches in the streets. The tower of the

cathedral was illuminated from its foundation to its cross. The same ceremony takes place in all the churches; and what is truly surprising, considering their number, they are all equally crowded. We hastened to the cathedral: it was filled with a prodigious assembly, consisting of all ranks of both sexes, bearing lighted wax tapers, to be afterwards heaped in rows upon the different shrines. The walls, the ceiling, and every part of the building, are covered with the pictures of saints and martyrs. At the moment of our arrival the doors were shut, and on the outside appeared Plato, the archbishop, preceded by banners and torches, and followed by all his train of priests, with crucifixes and censers, who were making, three times in procession, the tour of the cathedral, chanting with loud voices, and glittering in sumptuous vestments, bespangled with gold, silver, and precious stones. The snow had not melted so equally within the Kremlin as in the streets of the city; this magnificent procession was therefore constrained to move upon planks over the deep mud which surrounded the cathedral. After completing the third circuit, they all halted opposite the great doors, which were still closed; the archbishop with a censer then scattered incense against the doors and over the priests. Suddenly these doors were opened, and the effect was magnificent beyond description. The immense throng of spectators within, bearing innumerable tapers, formed two lines, through which the archbishop entered, advancing with his train to a throne near the centre. The profusion of lights in all parts of the cathedral, and, among others, those of the numerous chandeliers in the centre, the richness of the dresses, and the vastness of the assembly, filled us with astonishment. Having joined the suite of the archbishop, we

accompanied the procession, and passed even to the throne; here the police officers permitted us to stand among the priests, near an embroidered stool of satin placed for the archbishop. The loud chorus which burst forth at the entrance to the church, continued as the procession moved towards the throne, and after the archbishop had taken his seat; when my attention was for a moment called off, by seeing one of the Russians earnestly crossing himself with his right hand, while his left was employed in picking my companion's pocket of his handkerchief. Soon after, the archbishop descended, and went round the cathedral; first offering incense to the priests, and then to the people as he passed along. When he had returned to his seat, the priests, two by two, performed the same ceremony, beginning with the archbishop, who rose and made obeisance, with a lighted taper in his hand. From the moment the church doors were opened, the spectators had continued bowing their heads and crossing themselves, insomuch that some of the people seemed really exhausted by the constant motion of the head and hands.

"We had now leisure to examine the dresses and figures of the priests, which were certainly the most striking we had ever seen. Their long, dark hair, without powder, fell down in ringlets, or straight and thick, far over their rich robes and shoulders: their dark thick beards also entirely covered their breasts. Upon the heads of the archbishops and bishops were high caps, covered with gems, and adorned with miniature paintings, set in jewels, of the crucifixion, the virgin, and the saints. Their robes, of various coloured satin, were of the most costly embroidery, and even upon these were miniature pictures set with precious stones. Such, according to the consecrated

record of ancient days, was the appearance of the high priests of old: holy men, standing by the tabernacle of the congregation, in fine raiment, the workmanship of 'Bezaleel, the son of Uri, the son of Hur, of the tribe of Judah.' It is said, there is a convent in Moscow, where women are entirely employed in working dresses for the priests. After two hours had been spent in various ceremonies, the archbishop advanced, holding forth a cross, which all the people crowded to embrace, squeezing each other nearly to suffocation. As soon, however, as their eagerness had been somewhat satisfied, he returned to the sacristy, under a pretence of seeking for the body of Christ; where, putting on a plain purple robe, he again advanced, exclaiming three times in a very loud voice, 'CHRIST IS RISEN!'

"The most remarkable part of the ceremony now followed. The archbishop, descending into the body of the church, concluded the whole ceremony by crawling round the pavement on his hands and knees, kissing the consecrated pictures, whether on the pillars, the walls, the altars, or the tombs; the priests and all the people imitating his example. Sepulchres were opened, and the mummied bodies of incorruptible saints exhibited: all of these underwent the same general kissing."*

* Having thus introduced to our readers Plato, the archbishop of Moscow, in all the splendour and pomp, of his sacerdotal dress and his highest episcopal functions, it will be amusing to turn to the contrasted appearance which he exhibited when Dr. Clarke visited him at a convent near Moscow. "Upon our arrival at the convent, we were told he was then walking in a small garden, the care of which constituted his principal pleasure, and the employment characterises the simplicity and innocence of his life. As we entered the garden, we found him seated upon a turf bank beneath the windows of the refectory, attended by a bishop, an old man, his vicar, the abbé of the monastery, and some other of the monks. We

In one quarter of the suburbs, on an elevated spot, commanding a fine view of Moscow, there is a large wooden house, belonging to the Orloff family, which gives a very correct idea of the style of living of the Russian nobility about half a century ago. A very extensive tract of ground is covered with a number of separate buildings; the front, with the intervals between them, measuring nearly 1,000 feet. The upper part is wood, neatly painted of a green colour; the basement stories of the two principal edifices are of stuccoed brick. But, though thus plain in their external appearance and materials, their internal arrangement and fitting up display magnificence, taste,

could scarcely believe our eyes when they told us it was Plato; for although we had often seen him in his archiepiscopal vestments, his rural dress had made such an alteration that we did not know him. He was habited in a striped silk bed-gown, with a night-cap upon his head, like the silk nets commonly worn by Italian postilions; having also a pair of woollen stockings upon his legs, the feet of which were of coarse linen, fastened on with twine in a most uncouth manner; he was without shoes, but a pair of yellow slippers lay at some distance. By his side, upon the bank, was placed his broad-brimmed straw hat, offering a correct model of the Athenian *pileus*, and such as the patriarchs of the Greek Church have always worn: the shepherdesses of the Alps now wear the same kind of hat. In the hat-band he had placed a bunch of withered flowers. His white beard, added to the mildness of his animated countenance, gave to his features a most pleasing expression. He desired to know who we were? and being answered, Englishmen; 'What,' said he, 'all Englishmen! I wonder what your countrymen can find sufficiently interesting in Russia, to bring you so far from home, and in such times as these?" But having made these observations in the French language, he looked cautiously round him, and began to ask the monks, severally, whether they understood French? Finding them perfectly ignorant of that language, he bade us to sit by him, while, the rest forming a circle near him, he entertained us with a conversation, in which there was enough of science, of wit, and of freedom, to astonish any traveller in such a country, and at such a period."

and great attention to convenience. When Mr. Coxe visited Moscow, the true style of old Russian hospitality was kept up by Count Orloff; he kept an open table, at which always appeared a great variety of Greek wines. Mr. Coxe mentions one dish, served on his plentiful board, as extremely delicious, and only inferior to the best English venison,—a quarter of an Astrachan sheep, remarkable for the quantity and flavour of the fat. The family of Orloff have long been celebrated for the value and excellence of their stud; indeed, a great part of their revenue is derived from it: it is kept at the family seat, about fifteen miles from Moscow. This seat commands a beautiful view of a circular plain, on which it is situated, watered by the Moskva, and skirted by gentle eminences, the sides of which are covered with wood, corn, and pasture. Mr. Coxe visited this stud, the greater part of which were grazing in the plain. It had been collected from the most favoured and celebrated breeds in almost every part of the world; Arabia, Turkey, Tartary, Persia, and England. Four horses were greatly prized by him, of the true *Koshlani* breed; this breed is peculiar to Arabia, where it is much esteemed, and out of which it is seldom seen. The present Countess Orloff is not less celebrated for the number and excellence of her stud, the attention she pays to them, and the immense income she derives from them.

The suburbs of Moscow present little that is particularly remarkable, besides what we have already described. One curiosity, however, must not be omitted, the market for the sale of houses. It is held in a large, open space, where a great number and variety of ready-made houses are exhibited. The purchaser states the number of rooms he requires, examines the one pointed out to him of that size, paying particular

attention to the timbers, which are regularly numbered, and if all suits and pleases him, concludes the bargain. Sometimes the house is taken away and put up at the expense of the seller, sometimes at that of the purchaser. Thus, in the short space of a week, a family may be enabled to buy, remove, raise, and inhabit a suitable dwelling. It ought to be added, however, that these ready-made houses are merely collections of trunks of trees, tenoned and mortised at each extremity into one another. The demand for such houses is gradually diminishing in consequence of brick houses taking the place of wooden ones in Moscow.

From the description we have given of this city, it will be abundantly evident that it covers an immense area. The most correct estimate of its circumference makes it twenty-six miles and a half; but this of course includes many vacant spaces. Its greatest diameter is about eight miles; its least, not above five. The extent, in comparison with that of St. Petersburgh, is nearly twelve to one. It is reckoned that there are upwards of 60 principal streets, and upwards of 500 cross streets. Few of the streets are straight, but they are generally wide; some of them enormously so. The squares, places, and markets are twenty-five, mostly irregular. There are upwards of four million square feet of pavement, but in general it is very indifferent; many streets are unpaved, and some only on one side. A few of the streets are well lighted, but for the most part they are not, the whole number of lamps in this immense capital not amounting to 5000. The Moskva, from which the city takes its name, flows through it in a winding channel, and receives two small rivulets, one of the Semlianoigorod, the other at the western extremity of the Kremlin: both these in summer are nearly dry. There is only

one bridge of stone across the Moskva, and a few small ones of the same material cross the subsidiary streams; but there are immense numbers of single arches of wood and stone. The most curious are what are called *living bridges*, formed of planks supported on whole trees laid across one another: these, floating in the river, yield under and spring after the carriages, &c., being fixed to upright posts, so as also to rise and fall with the river. In the centre, there is a part that can be removed for the passage of boats, &c. These bridges are taken away in the spring during the floods. In all parts of Russia, being of simple construction and rude materials, they are erected by the peasantry.

The population of Moscow, has been variously estimated. Mr. Heber, in 1800, states it at 250,000 fixed inhabitants; and this estimate he derived from the master of the police. Dr. Lyall supposes it to have been 312,000 in 1817: of these, 197,482 were males, and 114,518 females. In the same year, the births amounted to 3,437, and the deaths to 4,463. In 1805, when the total population is supposed to have been 208,883, the nobility were reckoned at 12,165; the servants attached to their houses, at 14,445; the slaves resident for a time, at 45,155; those constantly resident, at 12,540; priests, deacons, &c. with their wives, 3,508; and foreigners 3,811; of these last, upwards of 1000 were Germans.*

"In consequence of the immense extent of the city and suburbs, a great number of hackney-coaches are stationed in the streets for the accommodation of passengers. These vehicles are without tops, have mostly

* The number of British resident at Moscow in 1818, according to the public register, was 148, including fifty children. Dr. Lyall supposes that they may now amount to about 200.

four wheels, and are provided either with a long bench, or one, two, or three separate seats, like armed chairs, placed sideways: their fares are so reasonable, that servants occasionally use them upon errands to distant parts of the city. The coachman generally drives a full trot, at the rate of eight or nine miles in an hour." If the wealth and grandeur of this city were to be estimated solely from the splendour of the equipages and the number of the horses attached to them, the inference would be far beyond the truth. There is hardly an individual above the rank of a plebeian, who has not four horses to his carriage; and Mr. Coxe informs us, that nothing is more common than to meet the equipages of the nobility, with complete sets, driving merely about the streets of Moscow; but the postilions are generally ragged boys, and the coachman a peasant in his sheep-skin, while the traces of the horses are made of no better materials than ropes.

The police of Moscow, like that of St. Petersburgh, is very effective, and its regulations are in general admirable. It was first organised by Peter the Great, reformed by Catherine II., and brought to its present state by Alexander. In order that it may act with the utmost promptness and regularity, Moscow is divided into 20 quarters, and these again into 88 subdivisions. In the absence of the emperor, the military governor is supreme: the head police-master is, however, the acting head of the whole system. Besides constables, watchmen, &c., there are officers whose sole business it is to keep a register of all the inhabitants in their respective districts, examine and arrange all passports, settle all petty quarrels or disputes, and keep a watchful eye on all that passes: a faithful report of all is carried to a head-officer. The number of watch-houses is 360, and as there are three watch-

men to each, their number is 1,080. No person can enter or quit the city without being known, as every householder and innkeeper is obliged to give into the police office the names of those who lodge with them; and if a stranger or lodger stay out all night, and does not return on the third day, the landlord must inform the police of it. No person can leave Moscow, unless he previously publish his name and rank in the newspapers three several times; there is, besides, a great deal of trouble in obtaining a passport.

From the number of wooden houses in Moscow, it is much exposed to fires: the establishment and regulations to protect it from this calamity are excellent. There are particular *depôts* for waggons, engines, &c., surmounted by lofty towers, at the top of which watchmen are stationed. As soon as they perceive a fire in their quarter, a signal is made by a flag in the daytime, and by lanterns at night, which is repeated at all the other quarters. When grand entertainments are given by the court or nobility, the fire-engines, firemen, and police are all stationed around the edifice. In summer, the whole regiment of firemen, with their engines, are exercised in watering the roads. In order to render the firemen more expert, they are trained in a very singular but useful exercise. A lofty pole, about the height of the fourth story of a large house, with a platform at its top, is erected; to this ladders are attached, and the firemen are practised in descending from this platform by means of ropes or rope-ladders. They are even expected to accustom themselves to jump from the platform, a sail-cloth suspended by poles, feather beds, &c., being placed below to break their fall. Mr. Coxe notices another regulation, which must be of great service in cases of fire, as well as during riots. "At the entrance of

each street there is a *chevaux de frise* gate, one end of which turns upon a pivot, and the other rolls upon a wheel; near it is a sentry-box, in which a man is occasionally stationed. In times of riot or fire, the sentinel shuts the gate, and all passage is immediately stopped."

The state of morals in Moscow, is represented by both Dr. Clarke and Dr. Lyall as dreadfully depraved. Sir Robert Ker Porter gives a more favourable account of it. After speaking of the superiority of the ladies of Moscow over those of the modern capital, in point of personal charms, he adds: "Before I came into this country, I was led to believe that I should find the morals on a par with those of France. To me it seems totally the reverse. I never saw married people more happy, or apparently more affectionate towards each other. I never, in any country, met with young women more amiable and virtuous. Every country has its *mauvais sujets;*—but from what I have been able to judge, Moscow, for a city whose sole object is pleasure, possesses less of what is called fashionable vice, than may be found in countries where more seeming austerity is practised." The truth will probably be found to lie between these two opposite representations. Enormous wealth like that of the Russian nobles, a religion of pageantry and unmeaning ceremonials, together with the slavery of the lower orders, degrading alike to the vassal and his lord,—must have a demoralising influence.

Moscow, though, in contradistinction from St. Petersburgh, it is called the ancient metropolis of Russia, is not so old a city as Novogorod, Kiev, Vladimir, or Tver. Its origin is involved in some obscurity, but it is supposed to have been built about the middle of the twelfth century. It derives its name, (written

Moskwa and pronounced *Maskva* by the natives,) according to some authorities, from the river which flows by the Kremlin; according to others, from *Mostkov*, a bridge of planks, the ancient name of the river being *Smorodino*. It stands in lat. 55° 45′ 45″ N., long. 37° 33′ E. This city has been subject to repeated calamitous visitations from the sword, fire, and pestilence. Within a century after its foundation, it was taken and laid waste by the Tâtars. In 1366, the plague raged here dreadfully; and not long afterwards, the town was consumed by fire, in less than two hours: this is distinguished in the Russian annals by the name of the great fire. In consequence of this calamity, the stone Kremlin was built, and Moscow was first surrounded with stone walls, instead of the old wooden fortifications. In 1382, in consequence of the approach of the Tâtars, there was an insurrection in the city, which was followed by its capture; nearly all the inhabitants were put to the sword, the city was given up to plunder, and great part of it was burnt. The number of those who perished is said to have exceeded 24,000. In 1408, the Tâtars again approached Moscow, on which the grand duke's brother, who was left in charge of the town, in order to prevent the enemy from setting fire to the Kremlin, ordered the suburbs to be burned; and thus some thousand houses were destroyed. Their inhabitants ran to the gates of the Kremlin, but, under the apprehension of a famine, they were refused admittance: the consequences were dreadful. The Tâtars, however, did not succeed this time in taking Moscow. In 1445, when, in expectation of a visit from the same ferocious enemy, great numbers had fled from the country for protection to the Kremlin, a great fire broke out in the middle of the town, by

which the whole of it was consumed, and about 3,000 persons perished. During this century and the following, it suffered repeatedly from the like calamity. In 1568 and 1570, the plague re-appeared. In 1571, the Tâtars of the Crimea burned the suburbs, when, it is said, more than 100,000 men perished, either by the flames or by the sword of the enemy. The Tâtars, however, were not able to take the Kremlin. In 1611, the Poles set the town on fire, "so that there was nothing left but the castle." Yet, in 1636, Olearius describes Moscow as about three leagues in circumference, and containing above 40,000 houses. "It is out of all question," he says, "one of the greatest cities in Europe." The palaces of the great lords, and the houses of some rich merchants, were of brick or stone; all the rest were made of beams and cross pieces of fir, laid one upon another, and covered with the bark of trees, and sometimes with turf besides. This author mentions a "hair market," so called, "because the inhabitants go thither to be trimmed, by which means the place comes to be so covered with hair, that a man treads as softly as if he were on a feather bed."

After the foundation of St. Petersburgh, Moscow naturally became a city of secondary importance, though many of the more *national* Russian nobility continued to reside in it, refusing to desert the ancient capital, situated in the heart of Muscovy, for a modern city built on conquered and, as it were, foreign ground. This dislike to St. Petersburgh, however, has been gradually wearing out, and is at present nearly obliterated. From the removal of the seat of government to St. Petersburgh, up to the year 1812, a few fires, some civil commotions, and repeated visitations of the plague, are the chief events in the annals of Moscow. But the invasion of Russia by the French

in that year, followed by their occupation of Moscow, the burning of that city, and their consequent disastrous retreat, have connected its history with some of the most momentous and influential events in the history of modern Europe. Before we proceed to give an account of these transactions, it will be necessary to trace the route of the French army on its advance to Moscow, which will afford us an opportunity of describing the line of road from the frontiers of Russia, and the principle places which occur in that route.

ROUTE OF THE FRENCH TO MOSCOW.

The cause of the invasion is well known, and may be told in a few words. The paramount and favourite object of Bonaparte was, to exclude English manufactures from the continent. To this system the Emperor Alexander had given his consent, and had acted upon it: but in Russia, it had created greater dissatisfaction and loss than in any other part of Europe. The Russian nobles derive all their income from the sale of the gross produce of their estates,—hemp, flax, tallow, &c. For these articles Great Britain was their best customer, and the continental system of Bonaparte of course pressed heavily on them. This circumstance, together with the jealousy and dislike they felt at seeing their emperor and country made subservient to the views of Bonaparte, produced a dissatisfaction, which, acting on the emperor's own fears, had induced him to relax the prohibitory system. This annoyed Bonaparte, while at the same time it afforded him a plausible excuse for attempting either the conquest of Russia, or at least a more absolute command over its sovereign. Negotiations were, indeed, carried on; but, while these were pending, both parties prepared for war. Bonaparte had collected, in

the month of June 1812, 490,000 men between the Vistula and the Niemen, besides 1,372 pieces of cannon, thousands of provision-waggons, innumerable herds of oxen, &c. The army consisted of French, Italians, Poles, Prussians, Bavarians, &c., headed by Napoleon in person; and under him were Murat and all his most celebrated generals. The army of Alexander consisted of 300,000 men: Barclay de Tolly directed the whole. They took up a position behind the Niemen. On the 23d of June, the first division of the French army, consisting of 220,000 men, with the emperor at its head, reached this river. Soon after they had crossed it, the plan of the Russians became apparent. Bonaparte hoped either to intimidate Alexander by the mere approach of his immense army, or at least by a decisive battle. But Alexander was not intimidated, and the Russians most carefully and systematically avoided a general engagement. Often the two armies were so near each other, that Bonaparte thought the enemy meant to fight, or could not avoid it, if he were so disposed; but when his preparations were all made and his plans formed, the enemy had disappeared. This course fretted Bonaparte's temper, and he was still more irritated when he found the villages and towns deserted, and the country through which he had to advance laid waste. He had, indeed, collected and brought with him immense quantities of stores and provisions, and he had ordered fresh supplies to follow; but it is evident that an army of 500,000 men could not be supported by what it brought with it, or by what came from a distance: besides, in proportion as he advanced, his difficulties in this respect would necessarily increase. After the French had passed the Niemen, and thus entered the Russian dominions, Bonaparte pushed on to Wilna, where

Alexander was. He hoped that the possession of this city would be contested; but the Russians, true to their system, left it undefended.

Wilna, the capital of Lithuania, is situated in lat. 54° 41′ N., and long. 25° 33′ E., at the confluence of the rivers Vilia and Vilika. Its population amounts to about 25,000, It enjoys a considerable trade,—confined, however, chiefly to the Jews. Its university, founded by the Emperor Alexander, an old castle, and some other ancient buildings, are the only things for which it is remarkable. Lithuania, originally under its own sovereigns, then united to Poland, and now part of the Russian empire, abounds in forests, in which a great variety of wild beast are found. Of these, the bonasus, or bison, is the most singular and rare. It is a kind of wild ox, formerly very common in Europe, but no where at present to be found in the old continent, except in the Lithuanian forests, some parts of the Carpathian mountains, and in the Caucasus. Among the numerous kinds of birds, a little species of titmouse, with a pendant nest, of a wonderful structure, is not unfrequently found. Amber is occasionally dug up in the forests: marine petrifactions, especially those of the madrepore species, abound. The Lithuanians are a very rude race. Their carts are put together without iron; their bridles and traces are generally plaited of the bark of trees, or made of twisted branches. Their dress is a thick linen shirt and drawers, a long coarse drugget coat or a sheep-skin cloak, a round black felt cap, lined with wool, and shoes of the bark of trees. Their huts consist of trees piled on each other. They are cringing and servile, displaying undoubted proofs of the tyranny and ignorance to which they are subjected. Bonaparte expected that the Lithuanians would eagerly join

him, in order that they might free themselves from the Russian yoke: he calculated on four millions, but only a few thousands entered his army. This arose in part from the behaviour of the French soldiery: notwithstanding the orders of the emperor, the suburbs of Wilna were pillaged, and the Lithuanians were thus intimidated, or rendered averse to the French. Only twenty days' provisions had been supplied to the army when it left Prussia: before these were exhausted, Bonaparte expected to have conquered or cajoled Alexander. His convoys not having come up, anxious to push forward, he was obliged to enter into negociations with the Jews; but even the provisions they supplied, did not arrive at Wilna till after the departure of the army.

Already the French had begun to suffer dreadfully, and to be guilty of the most wanton and savage devastation and cruelty. The Duke of Treviso informed Bonaparte, "that he had seen, from the Niemen to the Vilia, nothing but devastated houses, and baggage and provision-waggons abandoned; they were found dispersed in the highways and in the fields, overturned, broken open, and their contents scattered here and there, and pillaged as if they had been taken by the enemy: he should have imagined himself following a defeated army. Ten thousand horses had been killed by the cold rains of the great storm, and by the green corn, which had become their usual food. Their carcasses were encumbering the road; they sent forth a mephitic smell, impossible to breathe. It was a new scourge, which some compared to famine, but much more terrible: several soldiers of the young guard had already perished of hunger." This plain but bold representation angered Bonaparte; he doubted the truth of it; and another general giving a less

unfavourable account was believed. This confirmed the opinion which began to be entertained, that Bonaparte grew angry at the account of evils which he considered as irremediable, his policy imposing on him the necessity of a prompt and decisive victory.

This, however, the Russians were resolved he should have no opportunity to acquire: they cautiously retreated, leaving behind them deserted villages, broken up roads, and a country stripped bare equally of its peasantry and of all kinds of provisions. Occasionally they amused Bonaparte with a flag of truce, which, however, brought no overtures.

Eighty leagues beyond Wilna, the Dwina and the Borysthenes separate Lithuania from Old Russia. The narrow space between these rivers, before they take separate directions, the one to the south, and the other to the north-west, constitutes, as it were, the gates of Muscovy. It is the focus of the roads which lead to the two capitals. Here Napoleon made another attempt to cut off the retreat of one division of the Russian army. For this purpose Davoust was despatched, and he succeeded in arriving at such a position, and so near this division of the Russians, that when the intelligence was communicated to the French emperor, he exclaimed, "They are mine." Indeed, only three marches were necessary in order to enclose 40,000 Russians within an impassable ring. But they had abandoned their plan: they indeed offered a shew of resistance, but only to that extent which was necessary to keep up the hopes of the French, and to draw them further on to their destruction.

Bonaparte remained at Wilna twenty days, apparently undecided in what manner to act, telling others, and perhaps believing himself, that Alexander had abandoned Lithuania because he was too feeble to pro-

tect it. On the 16th of July, he departed from Wilna, being informed that the whole of his army was centered at one point, according to his orders, and that a battle claimed his presence: but again he was disappointed. He endeavoured to anticipate the Russians in the possession of Vitepsk, but not having been able to accomplish this, he determined to force them from that position. The Russians, on their part, seemed equally resolved to defend the long defiles near this town. A partial but obstinate engagement took place between the troops commanded by Murat and the Viceroy of Italy, and the Russians under Barclay. The latter retreated just as Bonaparte himself came up. He had formed his plan of battle, and so confident was he that it would take place and ensure him the victory, that his words to Murat were, "To-morrow, at five o'clock, the sun of Austerlitz." On the morrow, however, July 28th, the Russians had disappeared, and the French entered Vitepsk. This place, the capital of a government of the same name, is 689 versts from St. Petersburgh, and 553 from Moscow. It is mentioned by the Greek writers in the tenth century, when it seems to have been frequented by the Russians on their passage down the Borysthenes to Greece and Constantinople. The Dwina divides it into two parts: the inhabitants amount to 300,000. The little commerce it possesses is in the hands of the Jews. The government of Vitespk is in general fertile, producing hemp and flax in great abundance. The raising of these and of corn, the feeding of cattle, and the making of potash from their immense forests, employ the inhabitants, who amount to about 672,000.

This place was deserted, except by a few Jews and Jesuits. They were interrogated respecting the route of the Russians, but they were either ignorant,

or would not tell. A council of war being held, the necessity of halting where they where, on the borders of Old Russia, was insisted on by Bonaparte's generals. Whither, they asked, must we pursue the enemy in order to compel them to fight? At Vitepsk, they had acted as at Wilna; shewn themselves, allowed their rear guard to be approached, and then fled. It was further stated, that a halt was necessary to organise Lithuania, and to establish magazines. Bonaparte at first seemed to yield to these reasons for remaining where he was; establishments of all kinds were formed, and even embellishment and amusement were attended to. But if Bonaparte was at any one moment sincere in his attention to spend the winter here, that intention was soon abandoned. He determined to advance; and already full of the plan which was to secure him conquest, "he hastened to his maps; they presented to his views the cities of Moscow and Smolensko,—the great Moscow, the holy city—names which he repeated with satisfaction, and which seemed to add new fuel to his ambitious flame." He communicated his design and his plans to his generals, but they exhibited their disapprobation, either by their countenances or by their language. He was, however, immoveable; nor did the information that he received of peace between Russia and Turkey, which set another Russian army free to act against him, alter his resolution. On the 10th of August, he gave his order of march: in four days all his army were to be assembled on the left bank of the Borysthenes, in the direction of Liady. On the 13th, he himself left Vitepsk, after having remained there a fortnight.

Hitherto the Russians had most carefully and systematically avoided a general battle. No opportunity was indeed lost of harassing the French, and many

skirmishes had taken place. In these the French were generally successful; but the loss which necessarily attended their success, did them more essential injury than these trifling victories could compensate. The Russians, however, had not witnessed without murmurs of discontent and indignation, the advances of the French; and Barclay, the commander-in-chief, was severely blamed for not defending the sacred soil of Old Russia. The circumstance of his being a foreigner added to his unpopularity; and it was soon evident, that his cautious and wise plan would be wholly or partially abandoned, unless Alexander continued to give him unlimited confidence, and unless Barclay himself could carry it through in spite of the want of cordiality of his officers, and the ardour of the army for a battle. While things were in this state, he was informed that part of his army had been attacked and required his assistance, otherwise Smolensko would fall into the hands of the French. Marshal Ney had expected to capture this city by a coup-de-main; but he was obliged to fall back on a woody height, bordering on the river Borysthenes. "From thence he was surveying the city and its environs, when he imagined that he could discover troops in motion on the side of the river. He ran to fetch the emperor, and conducted him through coppices and dingles, to avoid the fire of the place. Napoleon, on reaching the height, beheld a cloud of dust enveloping long black columns, glistening with a multitude of arms; these masses approached so rapidly, that they seemed to run. It was Barclay, Bagration, nearly 120,000 men; in short, the whole Russian army. Transported with joy at this sight, Napoleon clapped his hands, exclaiming, 'At last I have him!' There could be no doubt of it; this surprising army was hastening up to throw itself into

Smolensko, to pass through it, to deploy under its walls, and at length to offer that battle which was so ardently desired: the moment that was to decide the fate of Russia, was at length arrived." But the Russian commander-in-chief was still able to adhere to his plan, notwithstanding that Bagration, the second in command, a native Russian, ashamed and indignant at the pollution of the soil of his country by the French, was disposed to co-operate with Bonaparte in bringing on a general battle. Barclay, aware of his disposition, sent him away, with directions to defend the town of Elina, on which he supposed the French were marching in order to get between the Russians and Moscow.

On the 17th of August, Napoleon awoke early in the morning, expecting to see the Russian army drawn up before him; but the field was empty. He still persisted in his hope of a battle, till he learned that the road from Smolensko to Moscow, on the opposite bank of the Borysthenes, was covered with artillery and troops on their march. There was no longer any doubt that they were in full retreat. All that now remained was, to gain possession of Smolensko without loss of time. A general assault was ordered; every manœuvre except one, which ought to have been decisive, succeeded; but night came on, the town was not carried, and shells were ordered to be thrown into it, to dislodge the enemy. Presently, thick columns of smoke arose; the fire increased, and it was soon ascertained that Smolensko was consumed. Barclay had evacuated it. The French army entered the walls, "and traversed the reeking and blood-stained ruins with its accustomed order, pomp, and martial music, triumphing over the deserted wreck, and having no other witness of its glory than itself;—a show without spec-

tators, an almost fruitless victory, — a melancholy glory, of which the smoke that surrounded them, and seemed to be their only conquest, was but too faithful an emblem."

Bonaparte saw here, as at the Niemen, at Wilna, and at Vitepsk, that the phantom of victory which allured him forward, and which he always imagined himself to be on the point of seizing, had once more eluded his grasp. Nevertheless, he wrote to Paris, that the conquest of Smolensko made him master of the Russian salt-works, and that his minister of finance might reckon upon twenty-four additional millions of francs.

Smolensko, the ruins of which Bonaparte had thus gained possession of, is thus described by Mr. Coxe: "Though by no means the most magnificent, it is by far the most singular town I have ever seen. It is situated upon the river Dnieper, and occupies two hills and the valley which lies between them. It is surrounded by walls thirty feet high and fifteen feet thick, with the lower part of stone and the upper part of brick. These walls, which follow the shape of the hills, and enclose a circumference of seven versts (four miles and three quarters), have, at every angle, round or square towers of two or three stories, much broader at top than at bottom, and covered with circular roofs of wood. The intervals are studded with smaller turrets. On the outside of the wall is a broad, deep ditch, regularly covered with traverses, glacis, &c. and, where the ground is highest, there are redoubts of earth, according to the modern style of fortification. In the middle of the town is an eminence, upon which stands the cathedral, from whence I had a most picturesque view of the town, interspersed, within the circuit of the walls, with gardens, groves, copses, fields of pasture, and corn. The buildings are mostly

wooden, of one story, (many of them no better than cottages,) excepting here and there a gentleman's house, which is called a palace, and several churches, constructed of brick and stuccoed. One long, broad street, which is paved, intersects the whole length of the town in a strait line: the other streets generally wind in circular directions, and are floored with planks. The walls, stretching over the uneven sides of the hills, till they reach the banks of the Dnieper; their ancient style of architecture; their grotesque towers; the spires of churches shooting above the trees, which are so numerous as almost to conceal the buildings from view; the appearance of meadows, and arable ground;—all these objects blended together, exhibit a scene of the most singular and contrasted kind. On the further side of the Dnieper are many straggling wooden houses, that form the suburbs, and are joined to the town by a wooden bridge. As far as I could collect from vague information, Smolensko contains 4,000 inhabitants: it has no manufactures, but carries on some commerce with the Ukraine, Dantzic, and Riga. The principal articles of its trade are flax, hemp, honey, wax, hides, hogs' bristles, masts, planks, and Siberian furs."

The Dnieper or Borysthenes, on which this town stands, rises near the source of the Volga, about 100 miles from Smolensko; after passing by it and Mohilof, it divides the Ukraine from Poland, flows by Kiev, and falls into the Black Sea: it begins to be navigable a little above Smolensko. The distance of this town from St. Petersburgh is 716 versts; from Moscow 384. The government of the same name, of which it is the capital, is in general flat and fertile: salt, flax, hemp, rich pastures, and corn-fields are the sources of its wealth and commerce. Wax, honey,

hides, timber, and a few manufactures, are also found in it. Mines of iron and copper abound: the latter are wrought to great advantage. The see of the archbishop of Smolensko is one of the most ancient in the Russian empire.

Mr. James visited this city in 1814, and he thus describes its appearance at that time: "We now crossed the Dnieper on one of the rafts of the country, and had travelled a few versts in the valley through which it winds its course, when, on a sudden turn of the road, the hills opened, and disclosed at a short distance a view of Smolensko: it was no longer 'the volcano of fire,' but a quiet and peaceful scene. The heights on which the town stood, shewed the domes of the venerable cathedral rising majestically over their summit, while their sides, from the top to the very base, were covered with trees and gardens in rich luxuriance: the few ruined houses that were discoverable at this distance, together with the turrets and ancient walls that encircled them, lent a picturesque effect to the scene, rather than excited any feeling of horror. Advancing a little further, we entered the suburbs on the right banks of the river, the same which had suffered from the conflagration that took place at the close of the battle of Smolensko. These too had now been entirely rebuilt; and, among other signs of renovation, the old wooden bridge over the Dnieper, which had been destroyed by the retreating army of the Russians, was supplied by one of a light military construction, the work of the French engineers.

"On the next morning, we rose early to make a second tour round the town. The cathedral, notwithstanding all the reports in circulation, we found, was uninjured, and afforded a fine specimen of the style of ecclesiastical magnificence in this country. But this

building stood almost single amidst heaps of ruins: the scene at hand presented a detail far different in its aspect from the gay prospect which before had flattered the eye. The chief street of the town, the great square, even to the very house which was pointed out as having been the lodging of Bonaparte, had all suffered the same destruction. The walls, too, of the town were breached in several parts; and the towers on which batteries of howitzers had been planted during the action of the 18th of August, were in a very shattered state."

The inhabitants of Smolensko were by no means prepared for the calamity which befell them: they had been repeatedly assured that all was well; and even when the Emperor Alexander and Barclay passed through their town, these assurances were repeated. In a very few days afterwards, the enemy was at their gates; and, at a moment's warning, they were ordered to leave their homes, for Smolensko was to be destroyed. The will of the emperor, the abhorrence which a Russian feels at the invasion of his country, their habits of implicit, unreflecting, and devoted obedience to their sovereign, operated effectually on many; but some refused or lingered: most of these were actually torn away from their houses; and the few that did remain, were afterwards severely called to account.

Soon after the capture of this place, Bonaparte was again told of the dreadful state of the country he had passed, and of the utter change that had taken place in the constitution and habits of his army, by General Rapp, who had joined it. In his journey, he had seen all who were marching to the army, and all who had separated from it; all who were not excited either by the presence of the chiefs, or by example, or by the

war. In Germany, the recruits were ardent and jovial; but, beyond the Oder, in Poland, they began to be dismayed and alarmed; fatigue and lassitude were depicted in their countenances. As he advanced to a greater distance into Russia, all these symptoms became greatly aggravated. Wine and spirits had failed; even water was scarce; the food was inadequate and unwholesome: owing to which and the infection of the atmosphere, caused by the unburied carcasses of men and horses, dysentry and the typhus fever broke out. Already, from these causes, and from unprofitable and indecisive engagements, the French had lost one-fourth, and the allies one-half of the army. A night's rest in some degree recruited the troops, and they started in order the next morning; but scarcely had they gone a few steps, when the weakest dropped behind, and many, able to follow, pretending weakness, followed their example. General Rapp represented all these circumstances. Bonaparte replied, "I am going to strike a great blow, and all the stragglers will rally." To Sebastian he said: "The state of the army, I know, is dreadful; from Wilna, half of it consisted of stragglers; now they form two-thirds of it; there is, therefore, no time to be lost: we must extort peace: it is at Moscow. Besides, this army cannot now stop: with its composition, and in its disorganisation, motion alone keeps it together. One may advance at the head of it, but not stop or go back. It is an army of attack, but not of defence; an army of operation, not of position."

The Russians were acquainted with the state of their enemy, who had been reduced to this state by their system of not fighting; and it was, therefore, their obvious policy to adhere to this system, and, when they were compelled to fight, not to allow the battle

to be general or decisive. Barclay, however, soon found himself compelled to engage on a larger scale than he wished: the French had crossed the Borysthenes at several points. The Russian army was discovered on the road to Moscow. Ney pressed on after it; but it was first necessary to carry a strong position on a hill, which part of the Russian army had occupied to cover their retreat. The foot of this hill became the scene of an obstinate struggle; 30,000 men were successively engaged in it on both sides. The result was, that the French, at the close of the day, had gained the position, but with so severe a loss, that Ney ordered his troops to cease firing, to keep silence, and to present bayonets. When daylight appeared, the Russians were not to be seen; they had availed themselves of the darkness to effect their retreat, carrying with them all their artillery, baggage, and wounded. Bonaparte represented this as an important victory; he distributed rewards, nay, he even seems to have deceived himself. When, however, he was informed that his troops had proceeded eight leagues without overtaking the enemy, the spell was dissolved, and the sad reality pressed on his thoughts and feelings. "Smolensko was but one vast hospital, and the loud groans which issued from it drowned the shout of glory which had just been raised on the field of battle." Night and day the surgeons were employed, but, on the second night, all the materials for dressing the wounded were exhausted. One hospital, containing 100 wounded men, was forgotten for three days, and then accidentally discovered. The reports of the surgeons were most dreadful: besides the wounded, they were called upon to attend many soldiers who, exhausted with fatigue and hunger, had drunk copiously of the brandy of the country, mixed

with narcotic plants. "Others, less sober, or more debilitated, were seized with giddiness, stupefaction, and torpor; they squatted into the ditches and in the roads. Their half-open, watery, and lack-lustre eyes, seemed to watch with insensibility death gradually seizing their whole frame; they expired sullenly and without a groan."

For some time, Bonaparte was undecided whether he should advance to St. Petersburgh or Moscow, or proceed southward to Kiev. At Smolensko, he was at the point where the roads to the two capitals meet; twenty-nine marches from St. Petersburgh, and fifteen from Moscow. The thought of proceeding to the south was soon abandoned; and his determination to continue his route to Moscow was fixed by the intelligence he received, that Murat had come up with the whole Russian army, drawn up in order of battle. This intelligence was received on the night of the 24th of August. Bonaparte immediately hastened forward with his guard; but before he reached Murat, the enemy's army had disappeared. On the 28th of August, the French, having crossed the vast plains of the government of Viasma, found the town of Dorogobouje, near which the Russians had been drawn up in order of battle, in ashes, like Smolensko. It stood upon a rising hill, and, like the latter place, had exhibited an intermixture of churches, houses, cottages, corn-fields, and meadows; it was formerly a strong fortress, and had frequently been besieged during the wars between Russia and Poland. The adjacent country consists of a large plain, watered by the Dnieper, and bounded by distant hills. Thence, to the town of Viasma, there is almost a continued forest, with an occasional intermixture of pastures and corn-fields. Mr. Coxe travelled this route at the same time of year as the

French, the end of August; and he remarks that, though in the 55th degree of northern latitude, the harvest was then very forward, the wheat and barley were already carried in, and the peasants were employed in cutting the oats and millet. Viasma stands on a rivulet of the same name. The Russian army, in its retreat, destroyed the bridges over it, plundered the town, and set it on fire. Mr. Coxe describes it as standing on an eminence, making a magnificent appearance, with the domes and spires of several churches rising above the trees. "It spreads in a broken, disjointed manner over a large extent of ground; its buildings are of wood, a few houses of brick excepted. Part of the principal street is formed, like the Russian roads, of the trunks of trees laid cross-ways, and part is boarded with planks, like the floor of a room. It contains above twenty churches, a remarkable number for a place but thinly inhabited. The churches in these small towns and villages are chiefly ornamented with a cupola and several domes: the outside walls are either white-washed, or painted red; and the cupolas, or domes, are generally green, or of a different colour from the other part. At some distance, the number of spires and domes rising above the trees which conceal the contiguous hovels, would lead a traveller, unacquainted with the country, to expect a large city, in a place, where, perhaps, upon nearer inspection, he would only find a collection of wooden huts." The vast forest of Volkouski is near Viasma; it stretches on all sides to an immense extent, and, in the direction of Moscow, for 150 miles without interruption, almost to the very gates of that city. The Dwina, Dnieper, and Volga take their rise in it; the last two at a short distance from Viasma, and near each other.

Hitherto, the Russian general, Barclay, had been enabled to adhere to his plan of not risking a general engagement; but, in consequence of a violent clamour having been raised against him in the army, which had been supported by the nobility, the merchants, and all Moscow, and to which Alexander thought it prudent to yield, Barclay was suspended in the command, and Kutusof, a native general, was appointed in his stead. A battle was now resolved upon, and the Russian army marched on Borodino, on the frontier of the government of Moscow, there to conquer or die.

In order to render their position as strong as possible, the whole plain of Borodino was covered with intrenchments. The information of this circumstance, and of the change in the command of the Russian army, convinced Bonaparte that, at last, what he had so frequently announced and expected, would now certainly take place. He assured his troops that the end of their toil was approaching; that the Russians would at length give them an opportunity of beating them; and he allowed them two days to rest, to prepare their arms, and to collect subsistence.

He was naturally anxious to gain some information respecting his new adversary. "Kutusof was described to him as an old man, the ground-work of whose reputation had been formerly laid by a singular wound. He had since skilfully profited by circumstances. The very defeat of Austerlitz, which he had foreseen, added to his renown, which was further increased by his late campaigns against the Turks. His valour was incontestable; but he was charged with regulating its vehemence according to his private interest; for he calculated every thing. His genius was slow, vindic-

tive, and above all, crafty — the true Tâtar character! knowing the art of preparing an implacable war, with a fawning, subtle, and patient policy. In other respects, he was a more adroit courtier than able general, but formidable by his renown, by his address in augmenting it, and in making others concur in this object. He had contrived to flatter the whole nation, and every individual of it, from the general to the private soldier. It was added, that there was in his person, in his language, nay, even in his very dress, his superstitious practices, and his age, a remnant of Suwarrow, — the stamp of an ancient Muscovite, an air of nationality, which rendered him dear to the Russians. At Moscow, the joy at his appointment had been carried to intoxication; people embraced one another in the streets, and considered themselves as saved."

Aware of the importance of rousing every feeling that could aid his purpose, and intimately acquainted with the character of his countrymen, Kutusof drew up the whole Russian army under arms, and, surrounded with every species of religious and military pomp, took his station in the middle of it: all the Russian clergy attached to the army, or whom he could assemble, with their splendid and majestic insignia and dresses, carrying the symbols of their religion, and particularly the image which was considered the protectress of Smolensko, and which was believed to have been miraculously saved from the sacrilegious French, — marched before him. Kutusof, as soon as his soldiers were sufficiently acted upon by the spectacle, appealed to their patriotism, their superstition, and their hatred of the French. Thus, a tincture of fanaticism was given to their courage. "All,

even to the meanest soldier, fancied themselves devoted by God himself to the defence of heaven and their consecrated soil."

The position of the Russians was chosen with great judgment and skill: naturally strong, it was rendered more so by art. A terrace, thirty or forty feet above the Kalouga, a small stream tributary to the Moskva, falling in front with a gentle descent, and extending three or four English miles, formed the centre of their position. The right flank was protected by the river, and was otherwise so strong, that the French did not think it prudent to attack it. The left was protected by a deep ravine, beyond which was a height occupied by three redoubts; besides this, two knolls, covered with batteries, strengthened the left centre: these commanded the whole field. The village of Borodino lay below. On the other side of the river, the French occupied an eminence, extending from a point opposite the Russian centre, and reaching round their left; their ground was higher, but not so much more elevated as to afford any command within cannon-range. Their right was strengthened by two batteries. The battle lasted three days, the 5th, 6th, and 7th of September. On the first day, the French carried the redoubts on the height which protected the left wing of the Russians. On the next day, Bonaparte changed his plan, and directed his efforts against their centre. A dreadful fire, poured down the long natural glacis from a double range of artillery, carried dreadful destruction among the French, but did not damp their impetuous valour. Early in the morning, they carried the village of Borodino, advanced, and made three desperate charges up the heights: they were driven back each time with immense slaughter. They then directed their attacks on the left, where the Rus-

sians were weak, in consequence of the loss of the redoubts on the first day; and the enemy succeeded in their object. The third day, they gained possession of the ground on which the left wing of the Russians had stood. Thus terminated this dreadful and sanguinary battle. During the night, the Russians retreated unmolested. The loss was nearly equal: at least 63,000 bodies were left for interment. During the whole of this engagement, Bonaparte seems to have been paralysed. Surrounded by his young guard, he kept at a distance; and no representations of the danger in which his own army was placed, made any impression upon him. He would not permit his guard to quit him, though he was assured, at various times, that a decisive victory only waited their assistance. When he was told that from all sides it was the cry, that the moment for sending the guard was now come, he replied, "And if there should be another battle to-morrow, where is my army?" The field of battle presented a horrible appearance;—"a gloomy sky, a cold rain, a violent wind, houses burned to ashes, a plain covered with ruins and rubbish, soldiers roaming about in all directions, hunting for provisions even in the haversacks of their dead companions, and silent bivouacks, in which reigned a gloomy taciturnity." Round the eagles were seen a few officers and soldiers, scarcely sufficient to protect them; their clothes torn in the fury of the combat, blackened with powder, and spotted with blood. Numbers were found at the bottom of the ravines, into which they had crawled to protect themselves from the weather.

The Russians retreated to Mojaisk, pursued by Murat; here their rear-guard took up a position which covered the Moscow and Kalouga roads. Murat endeavoured to drive them from it; and while

the skirmish lasted, Bonaparte arrived, but in such a state of abstraction, that he neither seemed to hear the noise of the engagement, nor that of the bullets which were falling close to him. Some one stopped him, and pointed out the rear-guard of the Russians between him and the town, and, on the heights behind, the fires of an army of 50,000 men — a decisive proof of the incompleteness of his victory, and of the confidence of the enemy. On the 9th of September, the Russians having left Mojaisk, the French entered it; but they found neither inhabitants nor provisions, — merely dead bodies and wounded men. Soon afterwards, the Russian army again put itself in motion, without leaving any traces by which the French could follow them. When it was ascertained that they had taken the road to Moscow, part of the French army, under the command of Murat and Mortier, went in pursuit of them. For two days, during which they had no provisions but bruised wheat and horse-flesh, they found not a single person or thing by which to discover the Russian army. Kutusof did not halt till he reached Fili, in front of Moscow; here he took up a position, and informed Rostopchin, the governor of the city, that he would perish with him before it. The Russian army at this time consisted of 91,000 men, 6,000 of whom were Cossacks, 20,000 recruits, and the rest veteran troops. The French army, which had numbered about 130,000 before the battle of Borodino, consisted now only of 90,000 men, with 607 pieces of cannon, but it had no more ammunition than would suffice for one engagement.

It is a principle with the Russian, as with all despotic and short-sighted governments, to keep the people in ignorance of the real state of affairs: the retreat of their army, therefore, and the advance of the

French, were events of which, in Moscow, they were utterly ignorant, even a very few days before their capital was to become the prey of the enemy and of the flames, and the inhabitants were to be ordered to desert their houses. It is said, that the governor himself was deceived by the message he received from Kutusof; and that he was astonished and incensed when he very shortly afterwards was informed, that in a council of war it had been determined to abandon the capital without a battle. This latter statement, however, is doubtful, since he had certainly made preparations for the burning of Moscow, such as he could not have made between the receipt of this last intelligence and his own departure from it. On Sunday, the 13th September, the Russian army, in full retreat, entered the city. Dread, confusion, and despair seized the inhabitants: they issued in crowds by the gate of Kalomna, flying in all directions across the country. On the following morning, the police and officers of government took their departure; the prisons were thrown open, and none were left but the few that were unable to fly, and those who remained for plunder, or to execute the orders of the governor. About five o'clock on Monday evening, the advanced guard of the French, under Murat, arrived, and immediate possession was taken of the Kremlin. Before night, Bonaparte arrived at the gate of Smolensko, where he waited, expecting a deputation from the municipality, as he had been wont whenever he entered any captured town; but none came. On sending to inquire the reason, he was told, Moscow was deserted. He sent one of his generals to make further search and inquiries. "Not a Muscovite was to be seen; not the least smoke rose from a single chimney; not the slightest noise issued from this immense and

populous city: its 300,000 inhabitants seemed to be struck dumb and motionless by enchantment: it was the silence of the desert."

In the course of this night, Mortier pointed out to him smoke issuing from houses closely shut up, untouched and uninjured without. Shortly afterwards, flames were seen in other quarters. By Tuesday evening they had assumed a very serious aspect: all efforts to stop them were vain. Flames appeared in so many quarters, that the troops employed to stop the conflagration were distracted; and while thus employed, they were surrounded and in great and immediate danger. Doubts had at first been entertained, whether the conflagration was accidental or not; but now it was known certainly to be intentional. The wind, indeed, blowing strong, first from one quarter, and then from another, favoured the designs of the incendiaries. On Saturday morning, the wind fell, the smoke gradually cleared off, and the extent of the desolation became visible.

We have not hesitated to ascribe the conflagration of Moscow to the governor. At first, it was represented as the work of the French; but, from the authorities given by Dr. Lyall, it appears to have been undoubtedly a plan premeditated by Rostopchin. His motive was patriotic; his object, to render Moscow totally unfit for the winter quarters of the enemy; and in this he completely succeeded. At the same time, it is known that the French themselves, before their departure, sprang many mines, and thus added to the destruction of a place they could not retain. Dr. Lyall says: "From all accounts, we shall probably be very near the truth in concluding, that 7,000 *numeros*, or courts, were destroyed in 1812; and that these numeros contained 7,000 principal edifices,

and at least 14,000 structures, making a grand sum total of 21,000 buildings." The destruction of the Semlianoiogorod was so general, that, in a circuit of fifteen versts, not more than fifty habitable houses remained. The destruction of the finest and most magnificent division of Moscow, the Beloigorod, was not quite so general. The Kitaigorod was burning six days without intermission. In the Kremlin, the new imperial palace alone became the prey of the flames. None of the hospitals suffered; but all the public education establishments, except one, fell a prey to the flames. Within a very few months after the French left Moscow, orders were given to clear away the rubbish, and the rebuilding began immediately: thousands of workmen were employed in every street and lane; and Moscow at present presents no traces of the dreadful calamity of 1812. It is rebuilt with great regard to taste and consistency, so as no longer to present such numerous and strong contrasts of palaces and huts as it did before the fire: the Kremlin alone preserves entire its ancient singularity and Asiatic grandeur.

The dreadful truth soon forced itself on the mind of Bonaparte, that he could not remain in Moscow: a Russian winter was approaching, and they had neither shelter, fuel, nor provisions, to meet it. In vain he expected the peasants to bring provisions and fuel into the city; they avoided it as a pest-house. He durst not venture to scatter his troops in the adjacent country, as the Russian army was at hand and in strength; nor, indeed, if he had ventured, would they have been able to collect much from a district exhausted and laid waste. He attempted to negotiate, and for this purpose sent Lauriston to St. Petersburgh, and obtained an armistice; but the

delay proved injurious only to himself. It was the policy of the Russians to protract his stay, and to feed him with false hopes, till the winter set in. At length, when too late, his eyes were opened to his real situation. Alexander was inflexible; and the armistice was terminated by an attack on Murat, which destroyed half the remnant of his cavalry. Before daylight on the 19th of October, Napoleon quitted Moscow, leaving orders to blow up the Kremlin, which, however, were only partially obeyed.*

The nature of this work fortunately does not require that we should dwell on the particular miseries of this most dreadful and unparalleled retreat. Every circumstance that could inflict misery, co-operated against the French army: intense frosts, roads nearly impassable, a deserted and exhausted country; an enemy constantly on the alert to attack where they could do it with advantage, and to cut off all who from weakness or other causes were obliged to separate from the main body; the French themselves weak, dispirited, with insufficient and unwholesome food, often without any; the inclemency of the weather, and the attacks of the enemy increasing as

* The annexed Plate represents the palace of Petrovskoi, where Napoleon passed the dreadful night of the 16th, having with difficulty escaped from the burning Kremlin. It is described by Dr. Clarke as a large brick building, wearing an appearance of great magnificence, though the style of architecture is cumbrous and heavy. "It was erected for the accommodation of the Russian sovereigns during their visits to Moscow; the inhabitants of which city pretend that none of them durst take up a lodging within its walls, being kept more in awe of their subjects than they are at St. Petersburgh." This boast can be maintained no longer. Since Napoleon occupied the palace of the czars, Moscow has been made the residence of the Emperor Alexander.

they grew less able to resist or endure them. The French bore up most wonderfully under this accumulation of misery; they even repulsed the enemy in most of the attacks. The example of their leaders, and the hopes of finding all their wants supplied at Smolensko, supported their spirits. Till the 6th of November, the air, though extremely cold, had been clear. On that day, all the horrors of a Russian winter, its thick fogs, its tremendous tempests of wind and snow, assailed them. In the day, this was dreadful; but during a night of sixteen hours, without shelter, fire, or food, their condition cannot even be imagined. From this day, confidence and discipline, which had hitherto remained in a great degree, deserted them, and thus the evils of the retreat were augmented. On the 9th of November, Bonaparte entered Smolensko with about 60,000 men; many of them unarmed and unfit for duty. There he halted three days: longer he durst not remain, as Kutusof was advancing. He reckoned upon finding in the city fifteen days' provisions and forage for 100,000 men; there was not more than half the quantity of flour, rice, and spirits, and no meat at all; and a great part of these were destroyed in the attempts of the famishing and disorganised soldiers to tear them from one another. He now looked forward to his depôts at Minsk and Wilna; but on the 16th of November, the Russians entered the former, and took possession of all his magazines. The intelligence seemed for a time completely to overpower him: but he soon recovered his firmness and presence of mind. He had immediate occasion for these qualities, for he was informed that two hostile armies cut off his retreat. It was necessary, without loss of time, to secure the passage of the Berezina When he arrived there, on the 24th

of November, he found its banks lined with a Russian army. However, he succeeded in gaining the opposite bank, with a dreadful loss of men, and in the midst of scenes of greater misery than perhaps ever accompanied any event. On the 5th of December, Bonaparte left his army. Henceforward, to use the words of Segur, whose narrative we have chiefly followed, "it was no longer any thing but a multitude of isolated and individual struggles. Henceforward, there was no longer fraternity in arms: there was an end to all society, to all ties; the excess of suffering had brutalised them. Hunger, devouring hunger, had reduced these unfortunate men to the brutal instinct of self-preservation." Scarcely had the deserted army reached Wilna, and begun to seize on the magazines there, when the cannon of the Russians was heard. Murat and the rest of the generals in vain endeavoured to collect the troops; they were more intent on plundering the magazines and sheltering themselves from the cold, than on repulsing the enemy. The cry, however, "Here are the Cossacks!" roused them, not to fight, but to fly. This cry, indeed, for a long time had been the only signal which the greater number obeyed. Ney attempting in vain to rally them; he was obliged to join in the flight, which was continued till, on the 13th of December, they reached the frontiers of Prussian Poland.

The total amount of the destruction of human life occasioned by this unprincipled invasion of Russia, it is impossible to calculate; and it is equally in vain to endeavour to form any adequate conception of the intensity and extent of suffering to which it gave rise. The French troops who entered Russia either with Bonaparte or afterwards, certainly amounted to upwards of 500,000; and there is good reason to believe

that not more than 20,000 reached the frontiers. The peculiar character of the Russians appeared in a striking manner during this invasion. Their devotion to their emperor, the authority of the landholders over their peasants, and the influence of the priests, were all brought into action, as well as the credulity, ignorance, and superstition of the great body of the people. The French were profoundly ignorant of the state and character of the nation they invaded. They vainly expected the Russian peasants would join the ranks of their invaders: disappointed in this, they exasperated them by the most dreadful outrages, and thus added to their enthusiasm. In many places, the peasantry anticipated the orders of their lords, and placing their wives and children in security, and forsaking their homes, pressed forward in the service of their country. The nobility displayed a spirit of earnestness and devotion not inferior: their contributions in money were immense. In the government of Moscow alone, 80,000 men were enrolled under the name of militia; and throughout the whole empire, it is supposed 900,000 were levied under the same denomination. All these were to be clothed, armed, and furnished with provisions for three months, at the expense of the seigneur on whose estate they were raised.

According to the regular military system of the Russian Government, the ordinary recruiting is light; only one man out of 250 being taken each year. But soon after the conclusion of the war, Alexander organised what are called military colonies, in the crown villages. The males above fifty are chosen master-colonists; each of these receives about forty acres of land, on condition that he support a soldier and his family. This soldier, who assists him in his labour, is

called an agricultural soldier. These already form the effective force of the colonies, and in time will form that of the empire; they are exercised at least three days each week. There is, besides, a reserve soldier for each agricultural soldier, who, like the latter, works on the farm, or in any occupation, and is instructed in every part of a soldier's duty; he is obliged to supply the place of the agricultural soldier, when he dies, or has completed his service of twenty-five years, and to form one in an army of reserve, when it is needed. The sons of the master colonist, agricultural soldier, and reserve, called cantonists, are exercised as soldiers from the age of thirteen to seventeen; the boys from eight to thirteen go to school three days a week, and learn their military duties the alternate days. Dr. Lyall, who has published a pamphlet on these military colonies, calculates, that there are six million of crown peasants in the empire; so that, if this system is persevered in, Russia will have, besides its present army, a million of men, almost as good soldiers as those of the regular army, and a never-failing nursery, from which this enormous multitude may be regularly and constantly recruited; and he mentions a Russian nobleman, who boasted, that in thirty years, by the plan of military colonisation, Russia would have an army of 6,000,000 soldiers. Happily, for civilisation, though a supply of men is one requisite in warfare, money is another not less essential. The poverty of Russia at present secures Europe against the danger of her preponderance. This grand machine of 6,000,000 effective men, it has been remarked, "renders Russia invulnerable to any attack from without; but it is immovable beyond the frontier, without such sums of money as she can neither supply nor command." Add to which, Russia

has few officers, except Generals Sacken, Wittgenstein, and Woronzoff, who know how to manœuvre a body of 20,000 men.

The routes from Moscow to Tobolsk, and thence to Kamschatka and the frontiers of China; that from Moscow, through the countries watered and enriched by the Dnieper, the Don, and the Volga, to the Black Sea, the Sea of Azof, and the Caspian; the routes in the Crimea, in the districts which lie between the Sea of Azof and the Caspian; and the routes in the Caucasus and Georgia; offer to the observation of the traveller all that is interesting and important in the southern and eastern divisions of this immense empire. The eastern route differs most essentially, in one respect, from any and all of the southern routes we have enumerated; for, after passing Tobolsk, a wild, uncultivated country, an inhospitable climate, and a scanty population, very little raised above the rank of savages, every where meet our observation; whereas, in journeying from Moscow to the Black Sea, the Sea of Azof, and the Caspian, and through the Crimea, we gradually advance towards a much finer climate, a fertile soil, and races of people in many respects more interesting than the Russians of the northern provinces. When we pass, indeed, into the southern Asiatic dominions of Russia, we again meet with savage tribes; but this is compensated, in most places, by the rich, picturesque, or sublime scenery which nature presents. We may add, that on the borders of the Black Sea, in the Crimea, in the Caucasus and Georgia, almost every step the traveller takes, places him in the midst of ground that has been trodden by the Greeks or the Romans; presenting to him some vestige of their

power, or some spot described by their writers. We shall first pursue the route from Moscow to Azof, taking Dr. Clarke principally for our guide, with occasional assistance from Dr. Lyall and other travellers.

FROM MOSCOW TO AZOF.

THE state of the roads, and the appearance of the country, differ so widely, in Russia, in winter and in summer, that it is proper to premise, that Dr. Clarke left Moscow on the 31st of May, 1800. He found the roads in the immediate vicinity of Moscow very good. Voronetz was the first place of consequence to which he directed his course. At thirty-three versts from the capital is Podolsk, a small town, pleasantly situated on both banks of the river Pakhra (written by Dr. Clarke, Mockra). The second day, he passed through Serpukov, "a handsome little town," upon the river Nara, four versts from its confluence with the Oka, and ninety-three versts south of Moscow. In situation, appearance, and surrounding scenery, it is described as resembling Newmarket. It contains a citadel, enclosed by a strong rampart. In the churchyard, Dr. Clarke observed several female natives "practising a custom which is purely oriental, namely, that of visiting the sepulchres of friends long buried, touching the graves with their foreheads, weeping aloud, and uttering short prayers." In the villages on this road, as well as in other parts of Russia, the traveller may have frequent opportunities of observing the game called by the English peasants *dibbs*, played with the small joint-bones of a sheep, ranged along the back of the hand and arm, and then thrown up and caught; it seems to have been a favourite game with the ancient Greeks, and is repre-

sented on some of their finest vases. The Russian boys and girls are very fond of this pastime, and sometimes even the old men may be seen engaged in it.

On the 3d of June, Dr. Clarke reached Tula, "the Sheffield of Russia," and one of the most interesting cities in the empire. The town itself, as seen from the elevated plain above it, is a noble object, with its numerous white buildings, domes, towers, and rising spires. "Trees appeared skirting the suburban downs, and spreading here and there into the valley, while cattle were grazing in the surrounding pastures; at the same time our ears were greeted with the cheerful sounds of industry, issuing from different manufactories; with the ringing of bells, the lowing of the herds, and a loud chorus of peasants, singing their national airs, who accompanied their voices either with the clapping of hands, or with the wild notes of rustic pipes, constructed of the same materials as the sandals on their feet (the birch or linden bark). Numerous caravans were moreover passing from the Ukraine and the Don; and the whole of this lively scene exhibited so striking a contrast to what we had long been accustomed to witness in the frigid regions of the north, that we seemed suddenly transported to a different zone." Tula is the chief town of a district to which it gives its name, distant 909 versts from St. Petersburgh, and 185 from Moscow. It is built on both sides of the Upa, in a situation partly low and partly elevated; and is divided into three districts, which, together with the suburbs, inhabited by the post-boors, communicate with each other by a number of wooden and stone bridges. The population is estimated at 30,000 or 35,000: the number of houses at 5,000. It contains a monastery, a nunnery, and twenty-six churches, all of stone. This town is chiefly

distinguished for its manufacture of arms, knives, inkstands, and all sorts of cutlery and works in polished steel. There are very considerable iron mines in the neighbourhood, which are wrought with great ease and at little expense, as the whole of the soil is impregnated with iron, and not more than fourteen inches of sand or mould lie above the ore. These mines supply the celebrated forges of Demidof, thirteen miles from Tula, as well as furnish part of the raw material to Tula itself. They were discovered about the end of the sixteenth century: and soon afterwards, a small manufactory of fire-arms and small-arms was established in one of the suburbs of the town. Peter the Great, however, first gave system and extent to this manufactory. The whole fabric was re-established and improved by Catherine II., in 1785. Even Paul, in the midst of his vagaries and madness, protected and encouraged it; and Alexander pays it particular attention. At the beginning of the eighteenth century, only 664 workmen were employed; in the reign of Catherine, upwards of 5,000; and during the last war, 7,000. The manufacturers are divided into five trades; barrel-makers, lock-makers, stock-makers, furnishing-makers, and makers of small arms. They all enjoy peculiar privileges, constitute a separate body, and have their own judges among themselves. At present, they can manufacture 50,000 stand of arms annually, and, in case of necessity, 100,000. We have already stated, that part of the iron used at Tula is supplied by the mines in the neighbourhood: the crown works, however, exclusively use Siberian iron. In the year 1817, the Emperor Alexander employed an Englishman to examine the government of Tula for coal. It was found in different parts, and some very conveniently situated

for the manufactories of Tula; but in consequence, Dr. Lyall asserts, of the influence of the proprietors of the forests, who would have suffered by its introduction, it was represented as unfit for the purpose of the arm fabric, and the intention of using it, was abandoned. There are few woods in the neighbourhood, and yet they produce sufficient fuel for the consumption of the place, which Dr. Clarke attributes to the very great economy introduced by the use of stoves: "for the heating of these, a few billets, merely kindled early in the morning, suffice; an equal warmth being afterwards diffused during the whole day and following night." The quality of the arms and cutlery made at Tula, has been variously represented. By Mr. Tooke, and some foreign authors, they are represented as equal to the English. Dr. Clarke, on the contrary, says: "The work is strong, but very bad, and will not bear the smallest comparison with our English wares." And of the arms particularly, he reports: "The name of musket is almost all that connects the appearance with the reality. It is wonderful any troops can use them: they miss fire five times out of six, and are liable to burst whenever discharged." Dr. Lyall's statement differs from all these writers; and we are disposed to depend on his judgment. He says: "No man with the least knowledge of fire-arms, cutlery, or what is called *finish*, would compare the manufactures of Tula with those of Birmingham or Sheffield. In every respect they are far inferior. At the same time, they by no means deserve the character given them by Dr. Clarke. It must be admitted, however, that their quality is much improved since he was at Tula; but, had the fire-arms made then been as bad as he represents them, the campaign of 1812," as Dr. Lyall remarks, "would not

have been so bloody, or rather would not have been fought." The arsenal is capable of containing fire-arms for 100,000 troops.

Dr. Clarke, on leaving Tula, quitted the main-road to Cherson, and turned off to the south, towards Voronetz. Dr. Lyall proceeded towards Odessa and Cherson. At present we shall accompany the former traveller. The whole distance to Voronetz, he compares to a bowling-green: a vast plain, covered all the way with a fine, hard turf, "exactly resembling that which covers the South Downs in Sussex, with the additional advantage of being for the most part level, extends like an ocean, in which the eye discovers no object to interrupt the uniformity of the view." This is part of that great oriental plain which extends from Moscow to Tobolsk in Siberia, and throughout all the southern provinces of Russia; it is generally without wood, and totally unenclosed. Near Tula, there are small copses or patches, containing dwarf-oaks,—the first Dr. Clarke had seen since he entered Russia from Sweden, excepting a single tree in a garden at Moscow, shewn there as a rare plant.

Twenty miles from Tula, he arrived at *Dedilof*, a miserable village, inhabited by peasants living in the greatest poverty. The whole district is swampy, and subterraneous waters had recently penetrated the ground on which many of the houses stood, when they all gave way, and the upper part of the village was changed into a lake. The sole occupation of the peasantry is tillage. This part of Russia, indeed, is very fertile. Near the town of Boghoroditz, the next place at which he arrived, nothing is seen but corn-land, covering a vast extent; it is the richest district in the empire. The roads are excellent: waggons, laden with stones, pass and repass upon wooden wheels,

without any iron tires. There is a magnificent seat belonging to a nobleman, whose estate comprises sixteen square miles of the finest corn-land in Russia, and was said to contain 70,000 peasants. At Celo Nikotskoi, the next station, Dr. Clarke saw a curious funeral ceremony. "The lid of the coffin, formed of one entire piece of wood, scooped out like a canoe, was not put on till the deceased was laid in his grave. They buried him in all his wearing apparel, even with the sandals on his feet. Mead was carried to the grave, to be drunk there, in a bowl, with a number of small wax bougies stuck round the rim. The women kept up a kind of musical ululation, howling their loud lamentations in strains truly dolorous. The rest of the attendants, instead of joining in the dirge or in the other ceremonial rites, were occupied in crossing themselves, and in prostrations towards the east, bowing their heads until they touched with their foreheads the other graves near the place of interment. The lid of the coffin was borne first, covered with linen cloth: after this followed the lower part, containing the body, so that it seemed as if two coffins were carried to one grave." In the plains over which he was now travelling, he observed at a considerable distance, a spectacle similar to one that Bruce witnessed in Africa; vertical columns of sand, reaching, in appearance, from the earth to the clouds, and moving with amazing rapidity. His servant related an instance of a child who was taken up by one of these sand tornadoes in the Ukraine, and after being whirled by it, had every limb broken in its fall. Hitherto our Traveller had passed only villages since his departure from Tula; but he next arrived at a large, paved town, called Eletz, situated on a river of the same name, and on the Sosma, branches of the Don. It is

surrounded with a fertile district, in which agriculture flourishes, and enjoys a considerable trade in honey, leather, cattle, and corn; it is also celebrated for its forges, part of the iron for which is furnished from mines in the vicinity, part from mines on the eastern banks of the Don. Soon after leaving this town, caravans from that river, the Crimea, and other parts of Southern Russia, were continually met; they generally consisted of a train of waggons, thirty or forty in number, laden with dried fish, wool, brandy, corn, &c.; sometimes of cattle only, cows of an ash colour, horses, goats, sheep, and hogs. Near Zadonetz, a town situated upon a hill overlooking the Don, that river is crossed by a ferry. It is here a broad, clear, and rapid current. From this place, the road leads through "the sweetest country imaginable, covered with woods, full of flowers, fruit-trees, and a number of plants, plainly indicating an approach to warmer climates. Apple and other fruit-trees sprouted wild, among young oaks, and other vegetable productions not found nearer to the North Pole."

On June 7, Dr. Clarke arrived at Voronetz. This city is situated on a river of the same name, near its junction with the Don. Here Peter the Great built his first ship of war. At that time it consisted of scarcely 100 wooden huts; it is now a handsome town, with 15,000 inhabitants, and carries on a very extensive and lucrative commerce, principally with the Black Sea, and in the winter, by sledges, with the Crimea and Turkey. Its merchants travel even into Siberia for furs, which they carry to the great German fairs. The climate of the surrounding country is delightful; the water-melon is as common as the cucumber in England, and of excellent quality. Yet, the extremes of temperature are great; varying from 30° of cold

of Reaumur in winter, to 28° of heat in summer, or 95° Fahrenheit. The swamps below the town render the place unhealthy in the hot season.

As Dr. Clarke advanced towards the south, caravans of Malo-Russians were more frequently met, whom he describes as a finer race than the Russians; "cleaner, more industrious, more honest, more generous, more polite, and more courageous," but withal, "much given to drinking." Their language differs from the Russian, only as the dialect of the South of France does from that spoken near Paris. Malo-Russia, or, Little Russia, the original and proper country of these people, comprehends the Ukraine and the three governments of Kiev, Tchernigof, and Novogorod Sieverskoi; but colonies of Malo-Russians are found in several parts of the south. The manifest difference between them and the Russians cannot be ascribed to climate, as they are separated from each other only by a few miles, but is most probably the effect of their different political condition. The Malo-Russians are not *districti glebæ*, and enjoy other peculiar immunities.

To the south of Voronetz, the country still continues level; the plains are adorned with a rich variety of flowers, and the air is filled with beautiful insects. As Dr. Clarke approached the Don, turtle-doves flew round his carriage; the pools were filled with wild fowl, and numerous herds or flocks were seen passing or grazing. Melons of different sorts flourish in the cultivated grounds near the villages; yet, the winter is severe, the snow annually affording a sledge road all the way from the Gulf of Finland to the Sea of Azof. At Lokova Sloboda, Dr. Clarke had an opportunity of examining the Malo-Russians in an establishment of their own, and of making the

contrast between their manners and those of the Russians. Their cottages, which are all white-washed, are so clean and neat, both within and without, that "the traveller might fancy himself transported from Russia to Holland." Their furniture is simple but also clean. They have poultry and plenty of cattle, and well-stocked gardens. In short, all about them bears testimony to their industry and civilisation. From the similarity which they, as well as the Cossacks, bear to the poles, Dr. Clarke is disposed to regard them as all derived from one common stock. The dress of the women displays considerable taste; that of the men in some respects resembles the dress of the Scotch Highlanders. Among their musical instruments, they have the bagpipe and the Jew's harp.

On the eastern bank of the Don, which our Traveller now approached, he found a variety of beautiful plants. In the extensive low woods adjacent, nightingales abound, and a kind of frog, not known in the north of Europe, the croaking of which is very like the cry of the old English harrier. Great numbers of pelicans were also seen on the banks of the river: vast flights of this bird, accompanied by swans, cranes, storks, and geese, arrive annually from the Black Sea and the Sea of Azof. The water-melon, which is cultivated here as an article of commerce for the markets of Moscow and St. Petersburgh, is planted in open fields, covering whole acres of land. Just before his arrival within the territory of the Don Cossacks, our Traveller came to a village situated in the most wild and open *steppes*. Steppe is the name given in the south of Russia to such plains as, though susceptible of cultivation, have never been tilled: they are covered with wild plants, and in many respects resemble the *prairies* of America. In winter, their

appearance is very bleak; but in summer, they have the aspect of a wild, continued meadow, with herbage knee-high, and full of flowers. No one collects or cuts this herbage. They are of vast extent: that above the sea of Azof is more than 400 miles in length. Their elevation is considerable. The soil in general is good; always light and sandy. Saline spots and salt-lakes are not unfrequent in them. One of the most barren is situated near Astrakan: it is really a desert, presenting a boundless surface of arid sand. In a few cases they are intersected by rivers, and wherever this occurs, there are villages and a numerous population. But some are totally destitute of water, and are consequently uninhabitable.

Kasankaia is one of the largest settlements of the Don Cossacks, and the first within their own territory at which Dr. Clarke arrived. He describes their appearance and manners in glowing colours. "His dignified and majestic look," he says, "his elevated brows and dark mustaches, his tall helmet of black wool, terminated by a crimson sack, with its plume, laced festoon, and white cockade; his upright posture; the ease and elegance of his gait; give to the Don Cossack an air of great importance. There is no nation in the world more neat in regard to dress; and whether young or old, it appears to become them all. A quiet life seems quite unsuited to their disposition; they loiter about, having then no employment to interest them, and being devoted to war, seemed distressed by the indolence of peace." In no respect do they resemble the Russians, except in professing the same religion and speaking the same language: they are all free, open in their manners, hospitable, brave, and cleanly. Their chief riches consist in their cattle and their horses: those who live near the Don are

also great fishers. They cultivate the vine, from which they make red and white wine, some of excellent quality. At each *stanitza* (station), there is an *ataman*, or chief, who is elected annually, and to whom, while acting officially, the greatest respect is paid: at other times, he passes unheeded among them. The ataman-general is appointed by the emperor: formerly his power was very great.

The territory of the Don Cossacks forms a distinct government, 2,976 geographical square miles in extent, with a population of 318,900, consequently 107 to each square mile. They pay no taxes, but furnish a certain quota of troops, who are maintained at their own expense, except when they pass the frontiers of Russia. There are various tribes of Cossacks besides the Cossacks of the Don: the most numerous and celebrated are, the Malo-Russian Cossacks, or Cossacks of the Ukraine, the Cossacks of the Black Sea, of the Volga, of Grebenskoy, of Orenburgh, of the Ural mountains, and of Siberia. The history of the Cossacks is involved in some obscurity: it is certain, however, that 900 years ago, they were represented by the Byzantine historians as a distinct people. The most probable account is, that they are a Slavonic race who originally inhabited the country near Caucasus, and who, owing to circumstances which are very obscurely and variously related, migrated to the district at present inhabited by the Don Cossacks. Before the middle of the tenth century, they had certainly reached the frontiers of Poland. From the vicinity of the Don, they emigrated or were transplanted by the Russian sovereigns to the different countries from which they receive their respective appellations. The most powerful detachment from the original hive, is established on the shores of the Caspian, having left the

Don at the beginning of the fifteenth century. Another numerous detachment marched towards the east in the following century, crossed the Ural mountains, and discovered and conquered Siberia.

From Kasankaia, Dr. Clarke proceeded to their capital. The route lay for the most part across extensive and barren steppes, where dromedaries were seen feeding, "the sole tenants of these wild pastures." Innumerable wild animals, however, of a smaller race, inhabit these immense plains. One which particularly arrested our traveller's attention, called by the natives *suroke* (the *arctomys bobac* of zoologists), is the size of a badger, resembles the bear in its manner and appearance, burrows under ground to a great extent, devours almost every thing it finds, and is in a state of torpor half the year. These animals are often kept tame; but even then they retire for six months to their holes, from which no enticement can draw them forth. They will sit upright and beg for bread and herbs, of which they are very fond. They make a very loud whistling noise on the slightest alarm. On these steppes, a little animal called *suslic*, supposed to be the *mus citillus* of Buffon, is also very common: its noise is like that of the *suroke*, but it is much smaller. It constructs under ground an ingenious habitation, impervious to moisture, in one part of which it deposits every morning and evening its food, corn, roots, or herbage. To this it retires on the approach of winter, closing the entrance with sand. In order to catch it, water, to which it has a great antipathy, is poured into its burrows: its greatest enemy is the falcon. Wolves and bears are also common, and a quadruped called *biroke*, "something like a wolf, very ferocious, and daring enough to attack men.

The town of Axay, the next place of importance which Dr. Clarke reached, is situated on the Don; it is a settlement of the Cossacks of Tcherkask, and the residence of an ataman. The river is here broad and rapid, extending towards flat and dreary marshes on the Asiatic side. This was the period of its annual inundation. In many respects it resembles the Nile. Both have the same regular annual inundations, spreading over a great extent of territory, the waters retiring in July or August. The same aquatic plants are found in both, and the same sorts of flies and other insects attend the retiring of the waters. The manner of their entering the sea by several mouths, forming small islands, is also the same; and, finally, as the one divides Africa from Asia, so, the other forms a boundary of Asia and Europe. The Don rises near Tula: its whole course is about 666 miles. Below Voronetz, it is from 600 to 1,200 yards broad, and, from the middle of April to the end of June, sufficiently deep for ships of burden. There are a great many shallows in it; and during the remainder of the year, there is not above eighteen inches of water over them. In the spring floods, it rises from sixteen to eighteen feet; the current is then very rapid. About twenty miles below Voronetz, close to the river, fossil elephant bones, similar to those found in Siberia, were discovered by Gmelen; they lie in the greatest disorder, some of them not mineralised, but in a state of partial decomposition. The antiquities of this river deserve a much more particular investigation than they have hitherto received. Dr. Clarke is disposed to think, that ancient history somewhat corroborates the tradition of the country, that Alexander the Great passed the Don, and built a city, 200 miles above Tcherkask, where the best Don wine

is now made The boats on this river are mere canoes scooped from a single tree, navigated with a single paddle: sometimes two are fastened together by planks laid across. No river affords a greater number and variety of fish, among which are craw-fish, equal in size to our lobsters; the beluga, here seldom more than twelve feet long; the common sturgeon, sterlet, trout, pike, and the water tortoise.

Dr. Clarke embarked at Axay for Tcherkask, situated on the right bank of the Don, surrounded by a small river, and in a very marshy, unhealthy situation, the lower story of the houses being every year inundated. It is described as "somewhat resembling Venice;" not, however, in size or grandeur, but merely in its situation, and in the passage from house to house by means of boats. When Dr. Clarke visited it, it contained about 15,000 inhabitants, and exhibited a good deal of activity and industry: at present, its inhabitants do not exceed 2,000. In consequence of its unhealthy situation, and the annual loss of lives by the inundations, the Russian Government resolved, in 1807, to build a new town, and transport the inhabitants thither. New Tcherkask is situated on a hill, on the right bank of a river that falls into the Don, fifteen or sixteen versts from the old town. Dr. Lyall remarks, that it ought to have been built on the banks of the Don itself, as the river on which it stands is not navigable; but the influence of the celebrated Platoff, the ataman-general of the Don Cossacks, decided its situation. In 1822, the number of its inhabitants was estimated by Dr. Lyall at from 5,000 to 6,000.

Having returned to Axay, Dr. Clarke proceeded to descend the Don, and had a "delightful sail" to Nakhtshivan, an Armenian colony from the Crimea,

established about twenty years before his arrival, and already in a very flourishing state. The bazar contained about 400 shops. "As we approached the Armenian settlement," he says, "we beheld Tâtars, Turks, Greeks, Cossacks, Russians, Italians, Calmucks, and Armenians; these, together with our English party, formed a representation of the costume of nine different nations within the compass of a quarter of an English mile. The Tâtars were fishing in the river, or driving cattle towards the town; the Turks were smoking in their coffee-houses; the Greeks, a bustling race, were walking about, telling lies, and bartering merchandize; the Cossacks were scampering in all directions on horseback; the Russians, as police officers, were scratching their heads; the Italians appeared as Venetian and Neapolitan sailors; the Calmucks, jabbering with each other; the Armenians, both men and women, airing in *droskies;* and the English staring at them all. Towards the Don, and especially towards its embouchure, Tâtars are found in great numbers; and this race of men appears, in journeying hence westward, the whole way towards the Dnieper, in all the towns by the Sea of Azof, and in the Crimea, and throughout the dreary plains lying to the north of that peninsula.

"Nakhtshivan offers an example of that enterprising commercial spirit which is characteristic of Armenian merchants. They are not naturally a lively race of men. The Armenians are almost as grave as the Turks, and they have all the boorishness of Dutchmen, insomuch that this is a common saying with European merchants in Constantinople, 'A sportive Armenian is as awkward as a dancing bear.' Yet, instigated by commercial speculations, these men traverse all countries, and overcome surprising obstacles

frequently making journeys to India and to the most distant regions of the earth. Their commodities and their manufactures, as far as we were enabled to judge of them, appeared to be Turkish, and of a nature to find a ready sale in Axay and in Tcherkask. They supply all the fairs of the neighbouring provinces; and these fairs afford the most extraordinary sights in Europe, because they are attended by persons from almost every nation. There is scarcely a nation, civilised or barbarous, which has not its representative at the fairs which are held along the Sea of Azof, and upon the Don; but particularly at the great fair of Nakhtshivan.

"Other Armenian settlements, belonging to the same district of Rastof, are in the neighbourhood, and all of them in a flourishing state. The Armenians are much respected in the country; their industry, their sobriety, and their general moral conduct, render them a most important acquisition to the Russian empire. Their whole population, however, including persons of both sexes, and all the Armenian settlements in the district, does not amount to 8,000."

The fortress of St. Demetry Rastof, where the governor both of Azof and Taganrog resides, is about a mile lower down the river. It was found in a state of deplorable neglect. Azof is a wretched and insignificant village, built on a high ridge, at the lower extremity of which is situated the fortress, if such it can be called: the works are in decay, and are commanded by the adjacent heights. "The meanest village in Kamschatka," Dr. Clarke says, "might dispute with Azof a title to notice." To reach Taganrog, which may be seen across the water, it is necessary to re-ascend a part of the river, and to proceed towards the sea by one of the mouths nearer to

Taganrog than that on which Azof is situated. With some difficulty, arising from boisterous weather, Dr. Clarke reached that branch of the river: the tide and current then carried them rapidly downward into the celebrated *Palus Mœotis*, which receives the waters of the Don from its thirteen mouths. "A remarkable phenomenon occurs during violent easterly winds: the sea retires in so singular a manner, that the people of Taganrog are able to effect a passage upon dry land to the opposite coasts, a distance of twenty versts (nearly fourteen miles); but, when the wind changes, (and this it does sometimes very suddenly,) the waters return with such rapidity to their wonted bed, that many lives are lost. The east wind often sets in with great vehemence, and continues for several weeks; they have also frequent gales from the west, but very rarely a wind due north; and hardly ever an instance occurs of its blowing from the south. This has been attributed to the mountainous ridge of Caucasus intercepting winds from that quarter."

Taganrog is situated on a cliff, commanding an extensive prospect of the Sea of Azof, in lat. 47° 12′ N., and long. 38° 39 E. It was founded by Peter the Great soon after he took Azof, and it is said, that he intended it for the metropolis of the empire. He displayed little judgment in the selection of the site. The sea near it is so shallow, that vessels drawing eight or ten feet water, cannot approach it nearer than ten miles. Within a short time after its foundation, it is said to have contained 70,000 inhabitants, but in 1711, by a treaty between Turkey and Russia, it was rased to the ground. In 1774, having been definitively given up to the latter power, it began to revive. At present, its population is estimated at 9 or 10,000, and at 12,000 during summer, when the ships arrive. Its

inhabitants are a motley race, Russians, Tátars, Greeks, Germans, Italians, French, and English. No place in the south of Russia would be better situated for commerce, were it not for the want of water, and that only during three months in the year the sea is open and safe. While the commercial season lasts, however, trade is active and lucrative. The produce of Siberia, of Astrakan, &c., is brought here as to an entrepôt; the former down the Don, the latter by caravans. As soon as the first ships make their appearance from the Black Sea, these caravans begin to arrive, and in a short time, 6,000 waggons frequently cover the plains below the town, about half of them from the Ukraine. The number of vessels is generally from 6 to 700: one-half small craft from Trebisond and Sinope, with marmalade, raisins, &c., used in the distilleries. From the Archipelago, wine of a poor kind is brought, also used in the distilleries. There are few Russian traders. French wine, German and English cloth are brought in Ragusan, Austrian, and Maltese vessels. The principal exports are, caviare, butter, leather, tallow, corn, fur, canvass of bad quality, linen, wool, hemp, and iron. There are three fairs in the year; the second, which is the principal, is held on the 10th of August. Dr. Lyall, who travelled from New Tcherkask to Taganrog, represents the intervening country as hilly, with signs of cultivation, plantations, and corn-fields in the vicinity of the latter town. Several thousand cattle feed on the steppes which lie close to it: they are here of excellent soil, not only affording good pasture, but producing large oaks, crab-trees, and the plant from which the Spanish liquorice is made. Dr. Clarke was much struck with the great variety of nations observable among the inhabitants: to their credit, he states, that they were

not more remarkable in the exhibition of their various costume than for the harmony and friendship which prevailed amongst them. Each exercises his peculiar mode of worship, and follows his own customs. Fifteen nations were distinctly noticed by him; Russians, Greeks, Armenians, Nagay Tâtars, Calmucks, Cossacks, Germans, Poles, French, English, Turks, Italians, Malo-Russians, Prussians, and Hungarians. The Greeks compose nearly two-thirds of the population. In the year 1820, they had quarrelled with the governor; the consequence of this quarrel, still existing when Dr. Lyall was there in 1822, was, that Taganrog was in a state of inactivity.

The ancient Greeks carried on an extensive and regular commerce in the Euxine and Palus Mæotis; a circumstance which led Dr. Clarke to expect to find on these shores some antiquarian remains worthy of notice: he could not, however, hear of any. *Tumuli*, indeed, abound on all the steppes; and in one of these had been discovered an arched vault shaped like an oven, "constructed of very large square bricks, and paved in a style of most exquisite workmanship with the same materials." Vaulted sepulchres have been found in other tumuli; and these, in the opinion of our Traveller, "render trivial the notions recently entertained and published respecting the antiquity of arches. The *tumuli* in which such appearances have been discovered, cannot be considered as of later date than the age of Alexander; and perhaps they are much more ancient." The question does not relate, however, to the antiquity of the *form* of the arch, which may be observed in many ancient structures, but to the acquaintance of the ancients with the *principle* of the arch. Such vague expressions as "arched vaults," especially when used on the strength of hear-

say information, prove nothing. It will remain for future travellers to ascertain the fact which the learned Traveller so hastily assumes.

From Taganrog, Dr. Clarke crossed the Sea of Azof to Chumburskaia, on the Asiatic side. This sea, surrounded on all sides by Russian territory, is united to the Black Sea by the Cimmerian Bosphorus: its greatest length, not including the bay of Taganrog, is 200 versts; its greatest breadth 160. Several considerable rivers besides the Don fall into it; of these, the most celebrated is the Cuban. From November to March, it is frozen, and navigation is seldom safe earlier than April. From this month to Midsummer, a south-west wind prevails, which increases the depth of the water. In Autumn, when this ceases, its greatest depth is seldom more than fourteen feet. The inhabitants maintain that its waters annually diminish.

FROM TULA TO CHERSON.

We must now go back to Tula, near which place the routes of Dr. Clarke and Dr. Lyall separated, in order to accompany the latter Traveller in his journey by way of Orel, Kiev, and Odessa, to Cherson.

The first place of note at which Dr. Lyall arrived after leaving Tula, bears the truly Russian name of *Mtsensk:* it is the chief town of one of the districts of the government of Orel, situated on a plain, but surrounded by hills, on two small rivers, branches of the Oka. The adjacent country is rich in meadows and corn-fields, but not in wood. The principal commerce, carried on by means of the Oka, consists in corn and hemp: the population is differently stated from 3,500 to 5000. The town presents an imposing display of churches and monasteries gaudily painted, with gilded

domes; but the houses are mostly of wood. A fertile tract of country extends to Orel, the chief town of the government of the same name, situated at the confluence of the Oka and the Orlik. Most of the houses here, too, are of wood, but the churches are of stone and numerous; the population is about 15,000. "The soil all around Orel is black, and yields most abundant crops. This town may be reckoned the emporium of commerce between Russia, Little Russia, and the Crimea, and at the same time the *depôt* of corn, both of its own and the adjacent fertile governments. The principal articles of commerce are, corn, hemp, tallow, butter, bristles, leather, honey, wax, cloth, horned cattle: these are chiefly brought to Orel from the southern provinces, and wine from Little Russia, the Crimea, and the Don. This town may, indeed, be regarded as a *depôt* for these commodities; whence, by the Oka, they are sent to St. Petersburgh. One hundred and ninety-five versts and a half from Orel, a wooden pillar indicates to the traveller that he has entered the Ukraine and the government of Tchernigoff. Dr. Lyall was immediately struck, as Dr. Clarke had been, with the contrast between the Russians and the Malo-Russians; it seemed, he remarks, as if he had been transported into a new country. "The houses, unlike those of Russia Proper, which present their gables, front the road; and their exterior is white-washed. The interior is separated into kitchen, room, and bed-room, even in small houses. The rooms are furnished with tables, chairs, and bedsteads of unpainted fir-wood, and over the beds we remarked white coverlets. At the post-house we found the *smotritel* (post-peasant) and his wife clean and orderly: they were greatly surprised at our examination of their house in detail. In a word, here, without

and within, all had a most pleasing air of order, neatness, and cleanness." As he advanced into the Ukraine, further proof of the superiority of its inhabitants over those of Russia Proper, presented themselves in the neater manner of thatching their cottages. In Russia Proper, the peasants heap up quantities of straw on their roofs, without care or method, and young birch-trees are then laid over it in all directions; the consequence is, that, on a stormy night, whole villages are unroofed; but still they obstinately pursue the same method. The Little Russians, on the contrary, display some art and care in the thatching of their cottages.

The first town in Little Russia is Nejin, seventy-four versts S. E. of Tchernigoff, on the left bank of the Oster. It contains above 1,000 houses, two convents, sixteen churches, and a "splendid gymnasium." The houses are mostly of stone, or of wood covered with clay instead of plaster, stuck over with small pieces of brick, and white-washed. The principal street, contrary to what is generally the case in Russia, is narrow, and has quite an European appearance, being lined with shops, and crowded with people. Large gardens are intermixed with all the streets. The population, which Dr. Lyall estimates at 12,000, (a large number for 1,000 houses,) consists of Russians, Cossacks, Greeks, and Armenians. The merchants carry on a considerable traffic with Turkey, Poland, and Silesia. From Nejin to Nosovka, the road passes through enormous corn-fields and pasture lands, intermixed with wood; sometimes with ditches on each side, and sometimes lined with rows of willows. Rivulets, marshes, and swamps abound here, as in most parts of the south of Russia. At Nosovka, Dr. Lyall experienced the excellence of the Cossack

horses; four of them flew at full gallop, with his carriage, from this place to Kozari, in forty-five minutes, a distance of ten miles. Kozari, as well as Nosovka, is a Cossack station.

At Semipolki, a mean village, he re-entered the high road from St. Petersburgh to Kiev. To reach that city, it was necessary to cross the Dnieper, which had not yet returned to its channel after the spring flood; he was obliged, therefore, to cross several small lakes between islands, with the water up to the horses' girths, before he reached the place of embarkation upon the river, which he passed on a raft. Before, however, we accompany him further, we must return to Moscow, in order to pursue the route followed by Mr. James from that city to Kiev.

FROM MOSCOW TO KIEV.

It has already been mentioned, that Mr. James travelled in Russia about twelve months after the French invasion. From Moscow he proceeded to Smolensko; and though the distance is only 348 versts, the journey occupied six days, owing to the exhausted state of the country, the difficulty of procuring either horses or provisions, and the extreme badness of the roads, consequent on the late campaign. Roslavle is the next stage. Near this town, Mr. James witnessed the manner in which the Russian families of distinction travel from St. Petersburgh or Moscow to their residences in the more distant parts of the provinces. "Every native, when on a journey, carries with him his food, as well as other articles of which he may stand in need; and since it is usual with a Russian to take his own bed, even when visiting at a friend's house, it is not surprising that he

should be worse furnished for his route. Hence, neither bed nor board is to be met with; and the demand for such articles is viewed by the landlord of a public-house as something unreasonable." Nothing can be conceived more independent than the appearance of a patriarchal family party at halt. The one met with near Roslavle, had six carriages, which were ranged in a row by the road-side. "At a little distance a fire was lighted, round which a score of domestics were employed in cooking dinner; still further, under the shade of the trees, the father, with his children and several ladies, were seated regaling themselves on the provisions they had brought; and the horses, near thirty in number, were browsing hard by." Near a wretched wooden town, called Mglin, the traveller enters the government of Novogorod Sieverskoi. In that town Mr. James first observed the houses of Jewish settlers. Whenever he receded from any of the larger towns, nearly all traces of civilisation and improvement vanished. The country presents the appearance of one large plain intersected with rivers, bogs, and forests. The uplands are generally of a light, sandy soil, exhibiting few signs of culture, or even of habitation. "Nothing could be more strikingly wild," says Mr. James, "than our passage over the Ypoote. A raft of trees loosely pinned together, was provided for the purpose of transport; a rope made of the bark of trees served for its draught. On either bank of the river rose a vast forest, not thick and luxuriant, but bared in many a line by the progress of age and decay. Amidst its shades were seen the white shirts and black fur caps of the Tâtars, as they scampered along in the wantonness of sport, with their horses at full speed: their caravan, just arrived, was ranged on the river side,

and the oxen were seen every now and then, as the raft put off, plunging into the stream, and swimming to the opposite shore.

" In a country of this description, it cannot be expected that any great progress should have been made in the arts of civil life. Mechanical contrivances of any sort do but little to occupy the minds of the villagers. Their plough is the same as the rude instrument represented in Egyptian sculpture, or rather, that of the Georgics of Virgil; a wooden hook turned downwards, armed with iron, and sometimes with two twigs tied on the back as handles or tillers. Their harrows are simple hurdles, in which the ends of the twigs, being bent downwards, perform the office of teeth, for the land is every where extremely light. Boats of one piece, rudely hollowed from the trunk of a tree, are common both on the Soz and the upper bank of the Desna; and the only skill of workmanship which displayed itself, was in the carved work that ornamented the bodies of their carts or tilegas, and the gable-ends of their houses, which were sometimes very elaborately decorated.

" The interior of the dwellings was in the same unfinished style as what we had before seen: the walls of logs were not even lined with planks; the moss that calked the interstices, hung out in shreds and patches, nor was the appearance at all correspondent to the degree of attention which seemed to have been bestowed without. The whole family slept in the same room, on mats, or straw, or sheep-skins, and the men generally in their day-clothes; but the favourite station for the night was on the ledge of the stove, or *lejanka*, which is always raised with a few bricks on a slope at one extremity, in order to supply the place of

a pillow. Where an infant child was seen, it was packed with a few clothes on a square canvass frame, and suspended by strings to a nail in the wall or the ceiling: a horn, having a small aperture at the bottom, and closed at top, was filled with milk, that, being suspended over its head, it might indulge itself in sucking at pleasure. A sick person, whom we not unfrequently found lying in bed in this single apartment of their cottage, seemed to complete the picture of misery. Rye cakes, or black sour bread of the same grain, with a little salt to give it a flavour, formed their chief diet; to this was added cabbage broth, or *schtchi*, thickened with oatmeal, and perhaps a little meat. All this is procured at an easy rate; and during the several periods in which the rites of the Greek church prescribe certain rules of abstinence, (for these materially diminish the expense of the poor man's housekeeping,) their ordinary meals may be procured at a very reasonable price.

"The only attempt at manufacture to which I was an eye-witness, was the making of oil from linseed, the plant being much cultivated in these provinces. The stamper was a beam of wood, fastened to the branch of a tree, forced down by strength of hand, and recoiling again by the natural elasticity of the bough; a simple contrivance enough; but it is worth observing, how nearly this machine resembles in structure the apparatus even at this day used in our English oil mills.

"As to the moral effects of civilisation, such as a sense of modesty or delicacy, this was still less to be traced in their manners: men, women, and children were bathing promiscuously on the road-side, and very rarely indeed did they betray any wish to conceal

their nakedness on the approach of strangers. The same was the case at Moscow, only that, of the two, the people of the country possessed, perhaps, a greater portion of shamefacedness. They had in general brown, sallow complexions, but not of an unhealthy appearance; nor, except the marks of scrofula, or sometimes the limbs of a few persons crippled by the winter frost, did we see any examples of malady or suffering. Of the latter, some victims appeared in almost every place which we passed, from St. Petersburgh downwards." *

We have inserted this melancholy picture of the condition of the inhabitants of the less wealthy governments, even in the southern part of Russia, where the soil and climate are comparatively favourable, because we believe it to be drawn by one who had excellent opportunities of observation, and on whom the charge of prejudice or exaggeration cannot justly be fastened. It is only at a distance from the influence of towns, that the real condition of a people can be fairly ascertained. Yet even here, destitute as the people are of all the comforts of life, and with few traces of civilisation or improvement, there is no hamlet, however inconsiderable, that is not provided with the universal indulgence of a vapour-bath. "In some conspicuous spot, one might espy, towards evening, the wooden hut pouring forth stream from every chink and cranny, and generally surrounded with *semi-nudes*, with their leafy rods in their hands, joking and sporting with each other unconcerned. The universal prevalence of the practice of bathing is remarkable. Towards the end of the week, the Rus-

* James's Journal, vol. ii. pp. 326—30.

sian peasant complains that his skin begins to itch, and, whether it be summer or winter, his first leisure hour, if he possesses but three copecks, is employed in the bath. The heat of the atmosphere," adds Mr. James, "was in this month (July) very great, the mercury standing at upwards of 80° Fahrenheit in the shade; and this sort, therefore, of vapour-washing, which is so universal in hot countries, seemed nothing more than the natural course of things. But to what can we ascribe its adoption in the northern districts, in Finland, in Ingria, at Archangel, where it is as constantly applied during the eight months of winter, as throughout the short period of their summer? Unable to form a judgment of its medicinal advantages, it remains only to say, that it is not from the physical necessities of a cold climate that it has been put in practice. It is not common in Sweden or Canada, countries nearly parallel in point of latitude, and suffering the rigour of seasons equally severe. But probably, like many other customs of the Russian nation, the use of the bath was borrowed from the habits of their eastern or southern neighbours, and thence has been gradually extended by fashion and imitation over the whole empire."

As our Traveller advanced towards Kiev, he met with numerous caravans of carts, carrying goods to St. Petersburgh and Riga, and pedestrians, mostly of the lower classes, going on a pilgrimage to Kiev. The only place of any consequence he passed through before he reached that city, is Tchernigoff, the capital of the government of that name,—a handsome, neatly built town on the banks of the Desna. This river, a branch of the Dnieper, passes, in its whole course, through fruitful and well-wooded districts: it

is navigable for 800 versts, as far as Bransk, whence provisions, timber, and other goods are conveyed to Cherson, and sometimes, by means of the Dnieper, to Smolensko.* Tchernigoff is an instance of the manner in which many of the chief towns and even districts of this empire, have at one time been separated from the crown, and subsequently reunited by treaty or force of arms. Having been granted as an *appanage* to one of the family of the czars, it afterwards passed into the hands of the kings of Poland, and was given up by them, together with Smolensko and Kiev, in 1686, as the price of the accession of Russia to an alliance between Poland and Venice against the Turks. Soon after quitting this town, Mr. James came in sight of Kiev. "The Dnieper," he says, "rolled at our feet, a smooth, majestic river, of more than a verst in breadth: on its banks was a caravan of Tâtars and Russians, listening to the simple notes of the *balalaika;* above our heads rose a long range of hills, encircled with a rich foliage of trees, and crowned with the gilt domes of the sacred city."

KIEV.†

HAVING crossed the Dnieper, and toiled up a steep ascent by a road covered, as usual, with planks, our

* A plan has been in contemplation to connect the Desna and the Oka, which would be of very great advantage to the inland navigation of Russia, as it would much facilitate the conveyance of the productions of the Ukraine and Little Russia, as well as of those of the Levant, through the Black Sea.

† The name of this town has been very variously written, Kiew, Kiev, Kief, Kioff, Kiow, Kiowia, Kiovia, &c. Kiev or Kiof gives the real pronunciation, though written Kiew by the Russians. It is supposed to be derived from *Kiovi* or *Kii*, a Sarmatian word signifying heights or mountains; and its inhabitants, a Sarmatain tribe, were denominated *Kivi*, or mountaineers.

traveller had a full view of the city, with its cupolas blazing with gold; while below it, appeared an unvaried plain of interminable extent, covered with a thick forest, through which the Dnieper, "now dwindled to a streamlet, was seen winding its silvery path into the horizon." It seemed a land untouched by man, and as wild as the most uncivilised tracts of America.

The situation of Kiev is very commanding: it rises to a great height on the crest of some hills forming a kind of natural amphitheatre, overhanging the Dnieper, the banks of which are either broken with well-wooded ravines, or gently descend to the water's edge. Houses, monasteries, and churches, crown the sides as well as the summits of these hills, and present, Dr. Lyall says, a *tout-ensemble* quite enchanting. The view of it from the river is particularly picturesque. The interior of Kiev, however, as is very often the case in Russia, by no means corresponds to this exterior splendour.

This city, the ancient capital of the great dukes of Russia, and "the cradle of the Russian sovereignty," stands on the west bank of the Dnieper, in lat. 50° 27′ N., and long. 30° 27′ E., at the distance of 878 versts from Moscow, and, by the direct road, 1,286 from St. Petersburgh. Its catacombs, castle, and arsenal, the antiquity of many of its buildings, especially of one of its churches, and the figure it makes in the history of Russia, render it a place not uninteresting, though, as a residence, it has been justly styled "detestable." Its very early history is involved in some obscurity; it is known, however, to have been a place of consequence so early as the beginning of the fifth century, when the Slavi, driven from their settlements on the Danube by the Romans, established themselves here and at Novogorod. The Slavonic prince of the

latter city treacherously seized Kiev, during an expedition against Constantinople, and immediately made it the seat of the united sovereignty. In 1037, it was declared the capital of all Russia; an honour which it continued to enjoy, till, in consequence of its having been frequently taken and plundered by the Lithuanians and Tâtars, the seat of power was transferred to Vladimir. After this, it became the prey of the strongest, being alternately subject to the Poles, the Lithuanians, and the Tâtars. In 1686, it was finally ceded by the Poles to Russia, and was erected into a distinct government on the new division of the empire in 1710. In 1782, it was made one of the three governments into which Little Russia was divided; but, at the last division, in 1796, it was made the chief town of a new government bearing its name, consisting chiefly of territories on the right bank of the Dnieper, which had then recently been acquired from Poland.

Kiev is composed of three distinct quarters; the Petchersk fortress, with its suburb; the old town, with its Polish fortifications; and the Podolsk. The fortress was built by Peter the Great: it is surrounded with ditches and high ramparts of earth. The arsenal within it, founded by Catherine II., is the finest edifice in the city. The interior of the under story is particularly worthy of the traveller's attention: the ceiling is very lofty, and the whole of the immense room is occupied with cannons, mortars, ammunition-waggons, and all sorts of stores and implements of war, in the best possible order. When Dr. Lyall visited it, there were also 44,000 stand of arms in the upper story: the whole arsenal is capable of containing 80,000, or even 100,000. Within the fortress, there is also an institution for the male orphans of soldiers;

they are taught reading, writing, arithmetic, and geometry, upon the Lancasterian plan. Adjoining the fortress is the Petcherskoi monastery, with the cathedral of the Assumption, founded in 1073, but which has frequently been repaired and altered. It has seven golden domes, and in many respects resembles the cathedral of Moscow. The dome of the belfry, which rises above the hill to the height of about 300 feet, and above the Dnieper to that of 586, is reckoned by the Russians a *chef-d'œuvre* of architecture. Its under story is in rustic, the second is adorned with 32 Doric columns, the third with 16 of the Ionic order, and the fourth with 23 Corinthian pilasters, arranged in threes. It was built by an Italian. Behind the monastery are the two sacred caverns or catacombs, stretching towards the Dnieper, with a deep ravine between them. They were originally inhabited by monks in the eleventh century, before the monastery was built, and afterwards were set apart to receive the relics of saints, martyrs, and holy men. Devotees here spend hours, days, and weeks; and to visit them is the grand object of the numerous pilgrims who come to Kiev from all parts of Russia. Mr. James thus describes his visit to them: "We descended a long staircase *en ramp*, to the mouth of the sacred catacomb, being formed into a regular procession, and each bare-headed, carrying a lighted taper in his hand. It is a labyrinth, mined in the solid rock, consisting of walks, chambers, branches, &c., ascending and descending for the distance of several hundred yards; the passage about six feet wide, and coved at the top; its sides neatly plastered, and stained with a black wash; the flooring laid with iron plates about a foot square. The remains of seventy-three saints, or primitive Christians of Russia, the objects of veneration, are deposited in

semicircular niches, that occur at intervals on the passage. The bodies are wrapped round and bandaged with swathings of silk, after the fashion of mummies, though no part, not even the face, is left visible. What was within, I know not; but they were scattered over with pieces of money, the offerings of devotees. The coffins, which are always left open, are of an oblong square figure, decreasing in breadth from the head downwards, adorned in the interior with flowers of gold painted on a red ground. These personages were the same who once found an asylum here, at a day when the unsettled nature of the times rendered them liable to perpetual persecutions abroad." Dr. Lyall states, that the names of the saints are placed over the cells or on the tombs: their number is about 150. Among them, besides archbishops, monks, princes, &c., there are bakers of bread for consecration, wafer-makers, image-painters, gravediggers, and the twelve masons who built the cathedral. Here also are shewn "a great number of *odoriferous heads*, and one of the children murdered by Herod's orders." In the cathedral is preserved the head of the Great Duke Vladimir. The whole of this subterranean necropolis is formed with more care and regularity than the catacombs of Rome and Naples. "On our return to the realms of day," continues Mr. James, "we heard the chant of mass sounding from the church of the monastery, and thither we instantly repaired. The people whom we found assembled, completely filled every part of the area; it was a herd of pilgrims, habited in all the various costumes of the southern provinces of the empire, some of them being said to have made a journey on foot of 1,500 versts, in order to discharge their vows at Kiev; and indeed, their lank, worn looks and tattered garments

seemed, in many instances, to bespeak the toilsomeness of their undertakings. While their devotions detain them here, they are for the most part obliged to lie out at night, being destitute of money to pay for lodging; and by day, only once, perhaps, receive refreshment, at the gratuitous repast which is provided, at the cost of the emperor, in the refectory of the monastery. But the enthusiasm, devotion, and superstition of a Russian, are easily able to surmount all these difficulties; and there is scarcely a person in the south, either of those who have sins to expiate, or of those whose quiet and holy life requires some notable act to grace its monotonous carcer, but imposes on himself, at one time or other, the task of performing this burthensome act of over-zealous piety."

Old Kiev is situated between the division of the Fortress and the *Podolsk;* its fortifications are in ruins, and there is scarcely one regular street in it. Its monasteries and churches, however, are celebrated for their antiquity and peculiar architecture. The church of St. Sophie is the oldest in the Russian dominions. It was the work of architects who came from Constantinople, and is built in some measure after the model of the famous church of the same name in that city; its interior, especially, bears many traces of Byzantine architecture. From the quarter of the Fortress to the Podolsk, the road leads down a very steep hill. The streets in the Podolsk are not regular; the houses are mean; the wooden bank of the river adjoining it is in a decayed state; and altogether, this division of Kiev has a desolate appearance; it is crowded, however, with churches and monasteries. It is partly inundated during the spring floods of the Dnieper. The streets in each division are very irregular, mostly unpaved, or only boarded over. The

resident population is estimated at about 20,000; among whom are a great many Jews, some Malo-Russians, and a few Poles; but the majority are Russians. The trade of Kiev is extremely dull, consisting chiefly in the exportation of corn and wood to the south, for which salt or money is received in exchange. Within these few years, greater activity in commercial pursuits has prevailed, since the fair which used to be held at Dubno, has been transferred hither. To this fair, the Polish nobles, and all the people of the adjacent country, resort for the sake of transacting business, and making leases or transfers of land. The merchants also attend with stores of provisions for sale, which are purchased for the households of the nobles, in the wholesale way. Sometimes the concourse at this fair is immense. Mr. James found the necessaries of life much cheaper here, than in any other town in Russia which fell within his route; though the inhabitants complained, that a great augmentation of prices in general had taken place during the visit of the Empress Catherine, on her southern tour, and that they had not fallen to their former value.

FROM KIEV TO THE AUSTRIAN FRONTIER.

At Kiev, the routes of Dr. Lyall and Mr. James again separate. We shall at present accompany the latter to the frontiers of Austrian Poland. On entering Russian Poland, every house seemed to be inhabited by Jews, who here carry on almost every profession and trade: millers, farmers, white-smiths, saddlers, drivers, ostlers, &c., all were Jews. Their relative numbers, however, were not so great as, from their constantly appearing in the streets, they seemed

to be. Out of a population of 6,000, which Zytomir, the first town in Volhynia which Mr. James entered, contains, not more than one-third are Jews; though, judging from the crowds of them every where seen in the streets, he would have imagined the reverse to be the fact. He was much struck with the beauty of this race of people: their countenance does not, he says, at all resemble what is called in England, a Jewish turn of features. "The women are remarkably handsome; their persons large and full-made; their faces very regularly formed; with black eyes and hair, set off with delicate complexions of white and red. The men are tall and straight, but rather of a spare habit; their features small, and very much fashioned like that meek and placid countenance which the Italian painters have invariably given to the picture of our Saviour. This peculiar style of visage was, however, gradually lost as we approached nearer to the confines of Germany; nor did it any where seem so prevalent as in this province (Volhynia)."

Travellers in Russia, during the summer months, are much annoyed by musquitoes; and from the time that Mr. James left Moscow, till he passed the Dnieper at Kiev, he had been tormented by them. Immediately after passing that river, they became less numerous and troublesome, and after a few stages, disappeared altogether. It is difficult to account for their disappearance, as the district he was traversing, was in general an uncleared tract of bog and wood, exhibiting no trace of man, except here and there, under a tree, the mark of some preceding traveller's fire. Caravanseras, attached to the miserable huts of the post-masters, and capable of receiving all the carts and horses of a large company, supplied them with fresh horses. Some malicious wit once remarked,

that he was certain he had reached a civilised district, because he saw a gallows: Mr. James makes a similar remark. "Among the first symptoms of the works of man, we observed the crosses that are erected at the junction of the bye-roads, and in other spots, said to be where murders had been committed; they were adorned, in the true popish taste, with the pincers, nails, and sponge, and rude inscription and ladder; tokens that were to be recognised as significant of a change at least in the forms of the superstitions of the people whom we were about to visit."

The wild and uncultivated district of Volhynia possesses a capital quite in character with it, called Novogorod; it consists of a castle and a few scattered cottages. The contrast, in several respects, between the Polish and the Russian peasants, was striking, and much in favour of the former. The women, whom Mr. James had an opportunity of seeing in their best attire at a marriage feast, were dressed in white chemises, with petticoats of blue edged with borders of red, the favourite national colours of Poland; their hair was adorned with large wreaths of flowers, and a great number of ribbons, blue and red, hung down their backs. The dress of the men was not quite so gay, but their clean-shaved chins pointed them out as a distinct people from the Russians. Other circumstances, also, bore the marks of a new country. In Russia, the clappers of six or eight bells are tied to one rope, and thus they are all rung together; whereas Mr. James was agreeably surprised to hear at Novogorod the chime of bells; and the sound of the organ brought his feelings and associations still nearer and closer to his native country. "It may seem extraordinary," he says, "to indulge such sentiments when on the point of taking leave of any country; but there

is something so revolting in the manners and conduct of the lower classes of the Russians, with whom a traveller is chiefly concerned on the road, that I confess, the feeling one experiences towards them is something more than that of unmixed pity; and I believe, there are few persons who do not congratulate themselves on passing the Russian frontier."

Not far distant from the capital of Volhynia, is held the great annual fair of Berditchef, which is attended by all the Polish seigneurs for many miles round: they bring their families, and remain encamped for upwards of three weeks. The chief sale is for horses; and some years, upwards of 40,000 are sold. At Ostrog, "a Jewish town" the next stage towards the Austrian frontier, the face of the country presents some appearance of fertility, in a few meadows, and lands cleared from wood and sown with corn; the houses also are more numerous and of a better construction, the inns excellent. Multitudes of Jews here present themselves, offering every thing for money, even the services of their wives and daughters. Soon after, passing through Dubno, which has fallen into decay, in consequence of the removal of its fair to Kiev, Mr. James passed the Russian frontier, and arrived at Brody, the first town in Austrian Poland.

We shall now return to Kiev, and accompany Dr. Lyall in his route by Odessa to Cherson.

FROM KIEV TO CHERSON.

For the first thirty-five versts after leaving Kiev, the soil is of more various quality than is common in this part of Russia, being at first sandy, then clayey, which is succeeded by a deep and rich loam. Clay is very rare in any part of Russia: indeed it is a kind of

soil much more abundant in Britain than in any district of the Continent. As our Traveller advanced towards the South, the roads became better, and pastures, corn-fields, woods, and small lakes presented themselves in succession. Dr. Lyall was much struck with a proof of the imperfection of Russian husbandry in this part of his route: six oxen and three persons are employed for each plough. Jews form a large proportion of the population, and, as usual, monopolise all trades and handicrafts; but every where, except at Kiev, they exhibited a picture of great degradation and wretchedness. Complaints were every where heard of their impostures and monopolies; and to this cause Dr. Lyall is disposed to attribute the imperial ukase, dated August 29, 1824, by which, "all Jews, who are not physicians or established merchants, are ordered to renounce, by the year 1825, the petty commerce they have hitherto carried on, and to return to the occupation of their ancestors; that is to say, to tillage. For this purpose, the Government will assign them lands in the temperate climate of European Russia, provide them with every thing necessary to commence their agricultural pursuits, and found them new settlements; besides, it will exempt them from taxes for some years, if they conform to the supreme will of his majesty. On the other hand, they have no alternative except to quit Russia and Poland." A singular practice prevails among the Jews of the South of Russia. Strings attached to poles and stretched across the street, are put up, as a sign that free intercourse may be carried on among them; but when they are removed, on the Sabbath for instance, no Jew, in case he quits his house, can carry any thing loose about his person, not even his snuff-

box or handkerchief. The authority for this strange custom is said to be derived from the Talmud.

The "paltry and miserable town" of Human, situated on a river of the same name, 302 versts from Kiev, was formerly a place of some importance in the wars with the Tâtars. Near it is the celebrated residence of the Countess Pototskoi, called Sophievka,—a woody dell, in the midst of an almost unbounded flat country, laid out, at an enormous expense, in gardens, with terraces, cascades, temples, and statues. Dr. Lyall was disappointed at the sight of this Slavonic paradise, but owns, that, nevertheless, Sophievka is "a charming spot." The next place of any interest is Vosnezensk, which lies on the Bog, and is the chief place of the Cossacks of the Bog. This river, which falls into the estuary of the Dnieper, not far from its mouth, is navigable for large vessels 150 versts up: beyond this, for 300 or 400 versts, it is full of cataracts. The Cossacks of the Bog are a warlike tribe, numbering from 6 to 7,000; they have the same military constitution as the Cossacks of the Don. Their capital is one of the largest of the southern military colonies. Here Dr. Lyall had an opportunity of seeing the immediate change produced by this system of colonisation. "It now contains a number of regular and wide streets; almost all the old buildings have been repaired and whitewashed. A temporary wooden riding-school; a fine, large, new, stone riding-school; a school for the *cantonists*, or young soldiers, conducted upon the Lancasterian system; another for the female children, under the direction of the Countess de Witt, whose husband is occupied in arranging the colony; military stores and magazines; and numerous houses for the officers who reside here;" were all pointed out to our Traveller's notice, as the

result of the conversion of this place into a military colony.*

From this town to Odessa, a distance of 125 versts, the country possesses little interest, being mostly level, with few villages. The nearer, however, the traveller approaches that place, the more decided and numerous are the marks of cultivation and population. Odessa† is situated between the mouths of the Dniester and the Dnieper, at the south-west corner of the Bay of Adschai, in the Black Sea. It stands on a declivity in the midst of extensive and productive plains; and is in the government of Cherson. The streets are regular and straight, and in general intersect each other at right angles; some are very long, a few are lined with trees, but all are unpaved. In many, the houses are contiguous; in others, intermixed with

* The grand feature of this system of military colonisation, Dr. Lyall describes to be, "the organization of an immense army from among the crown peasants, who are to be employed in agriculture in time of peace, and to form nearly the whole of the land force of the empire in time of war; in fact, during peace, to have a resident, self-supporting, agricultural army, or one, at least, which will cost the crown little except their arms." In other words, a militia. But, in fact, "the economy of the system," it has been remarked, "amounts only to an odious method of augmenting rents, and of taking them in kind When employed, these colonists are to be paid like other soldiers; and when dormant, they afford only the same resource for recruiting as the whole Russian empire; with the sole advantage of previous military discipline, which is far more cheaply taught to a landwehr, or a local militia."

† The latitude of this town is variously stated. Dr. Clarke says, that in the best and almost the only charts of the Black Sea, which are those printed at Paris, it is placed at least 27′ out of its position towards the North. In Norris's "Seaman's Daily Assistant," its latitude is given 46° 28′; but, in the "Connoissance des Tems," its latitude is 46° 29′ 30″; and as this latitude was ascertained by astronomical observations, we may regard it as accurately correct. Its longitude, according to the same authority, is 30° 45′ 22″ East.

gardens; they are in general neatly built of stone, with roofs of wood, or sheets of iron, gaudily painted. The stone of which they are constructed is the same as the rock on which the town is built,—a semi-indurated limestone, exhibiting throughout its entire mass, an assemblage of small cockle-shells, perfect in their form, but crumbling in the hand, and tinged with an oxyd of iron. Odessa contains seven churches, a theatre, an admiralty court, a custom-house, an hospital, several inns, a lyceum, and schools for trade and navigation, and for the instruction of girls. The air is pure and remarkably wholesome; the bay is good and secure; but it labours under the want of a navigable river, and a great scarcity of fresh water. The harbour is capable of containing 300 vessels. The commerce is considerable with France, Spain, Italy, the Levant, Germany, and England. The chief articles of importation are wines and liqueurs, cotton, stuffs, perfumes, shawls, oil, spices, tobacco, cloth, porcelain, and paper. Corn is the principle article of exportation, together with, latterly, butter, caviare, tallow, hog's lard, ironmongery from Tula, hides, furs, &c. About 800 vessels arrive annually; of these, 400 are British. The villages in the neighbourhood produce butter and cheese,—rarities in the south of Russia; potatoes are common; and the melons are remarkably fine, the water-melons being nearly equal in flavour to those of Syria. Fuel is scarce: weeds gathered on the steppes, bundles of weeds, and cow-dung, are used as a substitute. This last they stick upon the sides of their houses; a custom, as Dr. Clarke remarks, practised in the isle of Portland, and throughout the whole county of Cornwall. Odessa is remarkable for the superior flavour of its mutton.

The history of this place is interesting. Soon after

Russian vessels were permitted, by a treaty with the Turks, to navigate the Black Sea, they founded Cherson on the right bank of the Dnieper; but it was soon found, that it would not answer as the commercial port of the Black Sea. The Dnieper, from its cataracts, the shallows below it, and its being frozen or blocked up with ice for half the year, is unfit for communication with the interior, as well as with the Black Sea; the air of Cherson, also, is insalubrious. These circumstances, the extension of the frontiers of Russia from the Bog to the Dniester, and the acquisition, by the partition of Poland in 1793, of the provinces of that kingdom nearest the Black Sea, induced the Empress Catherine to found Odessa in 1796. In 1802, the Black Sea, being freed from the exclusive dominion of the Turks, became a common domain, and the centre of great speculations among the English, the Prussians, the Neapolitans, the Ragusans, the Dutch, and the inhabitants of the Ionian Republic. Odessa was the port to which they all resorted. In 1802, 280 vessels arrived from Constantinople and the Mediterranean; an immense quantity of corn was exported, and it was confidently looked to as capable of affording a supply of this article, in case of a failure of the crop in any part of Europe. At this time, the population was about 7 or 8,000, of whom scarcely a third were females. The Russian Government did all they could to encourage the commerce of Odessa: the most beneficial measure was the appointment, by the Emperor Alexander, of the Duke de Richelieu to be its governor-general. This nobleman began his administration by gaining the confidence of the merchants, and digesting plans as remarkable for their soundness as for the rapidity with which they were carried into full and advantageous execution. From

the year 1803, the date of his appointment, to the year 1810, its progress was rapid and almost entirely unchecked. From 1810 to 1814, its advance was not so rapid; and in the last year, it suffered a great loss by the return of the duke to France. Its population at present is supposed to amount to nearly 40,000. Greeks are the most numerous: they are chiefly retail merchants and workmen. The Russians are principally servants: the most wealthy and powerful citizens are the French, English, and Germans. Jews abound, but are mostly poor. The want of a navigable river, and the dearth of fuel, will always be drawbacks, however, on the prosperity of the town.

From Odessa, Dr. Lyall proceeded by Nicholaef to Cherson. The road to Nicholaef lies through several shallow *limans*, or salt-lakes, and across deep sands: nearer the town, cultivated fields and a few trees were seen. The town of Nicholaef is situated on the south side of the Ingul, near its confluence with the Bog.* As it is without the bar of the Dnieper, it is the station for vessels when built, and here they are laid up to be repaired. It stands in lat. 46° 58′ N., long. 30° 46′ E., about 77 miles from Odessa, 40 from Cherson, 877 from Moscow, and 1,362 from St. Petersburgh. It is of very recent foundation, having been built only in 1791. Its progress was slow, till the admiralty of Cherson was transferred to it. At present, the admiral-in-chief of the Black Sea resides here. The Russian Government have made great efforts to render it a place of importance, by the erection of extensive arsenals and storehouses. When Dr. Lyall visited it, a number of vessels lay in the

* Dr. Clarke says: "The river Bog flows quite round the place, in a broad and ample channel." This apears to be an error. We have followed Dr. Lyall and Vsevolojsky's Dictionary.

harbour of the Ingul: at the docks he saw a frigate of 64 guns, and another of 44 guns was on the stocks. The timber for ship-building is principally brought by the Dnieper to Cherson, and thence to Nicholaef. All the ships built here, are sent empty down the river to Glubokoye, a distance of several versts, where they take in their cannon, tackle, &c., and thence proceed to the Black Sea by means of the floating machines called camels. Both Dr. Clarke and Dr. Lyall represent this place as superior to most towns in the empire in many very important respects. Its elevated situation, its fine, healthy climate, the magnificence of its river, the regularity that has been observed in laying out the streets, and their extraordinary breadth, the cheapness of provisions and of all articles of necessity, except fire-wood, and the attractions of excellent society, place it, according to these authors, very high in the small catalogue of Russian towns.

The country between this place and Cherson, a distance of forty miles, is principally steppe land, with here and there elevations and numerous *tumuli*. About four or five versts from the barrier of Cherson, and not far from the great road, is the monument of Howard. Some interesting details of the last illness and death of that admirable man, are given by Drs. Clarke and Lyall, from information received on the spot. He had with some reluctance visited a sick lady about twenty-four miles from Cherson, and, after prescribing for her, had desired her friends to send for him again in case of her getting better; adding, that if, as he feared, she should become worse, it would be to no purpose. She become apparently better, on which they sent a letter to him, but, through some mistake, it was eight days in getting to his hands. Upon re-

ceiving it, he determined to proceed, as he was, without loss of time. The weather (it was in November 1789) was tempestuous and cold, and the rain fell in torrents. Dr. Lyall states, on the authority of the nephew of the lady, that Mr. Howard set off on horseback "in a light, old-fashioned dress, in silk stockings, and without a great coat," and that he had a fall by the way. On his arrival, he found the lady dying, which is said to have affected him much; and this circumstance, added to extreme fatigue and the inclemency of the weather, most probably brought on his fatal illness. He attributed it, however, himself, to his having put his hand beneath the bed-clothes, to feel his patient's pulse, when she was in a state of perspiration. On his return to Cherson, he was so unwell, that he was not able to pay his daily visit to his friend Admiral Priestman. This alarmed the admiral, who went to see him, and found him weak and ill. Mr. Howard told him, that his end was fast approaching. His friend endeavoured to rally his spirits, and to turn the conversation; but Mr. Howard replied: "Priestman, you style this a very dull conversation, and endeavour to divert my mind from dwelling upon death; but I entertain very different sentiments. Death has no terrors for me: it is an event I always look to with cheerfulness, if not with pleasure, and be sure the subject is more grateful to me than any other. I am well aware I have but a short time to live: my mode of life has rendered it impossible that I should recover from this fever. If I had lived as you do, eating heartily of animal food, and drinking wine, I might, perhaps, by altering my diet, be able to subdue it: but how can such an invalid as I am lower his diet? I have been accustomed for years to exist upon vegetables and water, a little

bread, and a little tea. I have no method of lowering my nourishment, and consequently I must die. It is such jolly fellows as you, Priestman, who get over these fevers." He then spoke of his funeral, pointed out the place where he wished to be buried, and added: —"Let me beg of you, as you value your old friend, not to suffer any pomp to be used at my funeral; nor any monument or monumental inscription whatsoever to mark where I am laid; but lay me quietly in the earth, place a sun-dial over my grave, and let me be forgotten." He was very anxious that his friend should immediately secure the spot where he wished his grave to be; and when the admiral returned with the information that he had succeeded, his countenance brightened. He then made his will. Soon afterwards, symptoms of delirium appeared; in the intervals, however, he was able to understand a letter from England, informing him of the probability that his son would recover from the disorder with which he was afflicted. When his servant had read this letter, Mr. Howard turned his head towards him, saying, "Is not this comfort for a dying father?" He was very averse to having a physician, but at length he nodded assent. The physician came and administered a musk draught, a medicine used in Russia at the last extremity. Mr. Howard swallowed a little, but endeavoured to avoid the rest: he was then entirely given over, and shortly afterwards breathed his last. He was buried at the spot he had selected; but, instead of a sun-dial, a brick pyramid, surrounded with stone posts with chains, forms his monument. Another monument has since been erected to his memory near the church of the Assumption, without the barrier of Cherson, consisting of a simple pyramid, with poplars round it, and enclosed by a high circular wall. On

this there is an inscription containing his name, the date of his death, and his age. On the original monument there is no inscription, but only the words, "John Howard," scratched on the plaster.

Cherson (Kherson) stands in lat. 44° 37′ N., long. 31° 26′ E., 913 miles from St. Petersburgh, 1,400 from Moscow, and 57 from the Black Sea. It is built on the right bank of the *liman* of the Dnieper. This immense embouchure varies greatly in breadth at different times: when the shoals with which it abounds are not covered with water, it is not more than one verst broad; but when they are covered with water, its breadth is six versts; and the navigation by the proper channels extends to fifteen. The mouth of the Dnieper is exposed to the influence of the north-east wind: when this blows violently for a length of time, it leaves the river full of shallows, and diminishes the depth of the only channels fit for vessels to about five feet, the entrance being at the same time extremely narrow. From these circumstances it is evident, that Cherson derives little advantage from its situation on the Dnieper; and it is surprising that the objections to it as a commercial and naval station and for dock yards, were not foreseen. It was built in 1778, and augmented and fortified in 1780. It is divided into four quarters, the fortress, the admiralty, the Greek suburb, and the suburb for sailors; but, though regularly planned, it has nothing striking in its appearance. The natural disadvantages of its situation, and especially the building of Odessa, have occasioned its gradual decline. But, though it is never likely to be a naval or commercial port, such as its founder contemplated, yet, as Dr. Lyall remarks, "it may long remain an emporium for the equipment and armament of the fleet of the Black Sea, and a *depôt*

for the produce of the neighbouring province." The population, in 1822, amounted to about 14,000 souls. The fact that it was the meeting-place of Catherine II. and the Emperor Joseph, the death of Howard within its walls, the adjoining monument erected to his memory, and the sepulchre of Potemkin, give it an interest which attaches to few towns in the Russian empire.

From Cherson, Dr. Lyall proceeded to Berislavl, situated on an elevated and sloping bank of the Dnieper. This town is remarkable only as being one of the passages of that river, by which corn is transported into the Crimea, and salt brought back. There is also another ferry across the Dnieper at Nikopole, 160 versts higher up. The ferry-boats here are numerous and large, and are constantly crossing and re-crossing, crowded with carts or *telegas* filled with corn or salt. Dr. Lyall was two hours in crossing the Dnieper. The route then lies over dreary plains all the way to Perekop, situated on the isthmus of the same name, which forms the principal road between Russia and the Crimea. The distance across the isthmus in the narrowest part, scarcely exceeds five miles. A very inconsiderable rampart extends from the Black Sea to the Sea of Azof. The waters of both these seas annually diminish, so that, as Dr. Clarke remarks, it is natural to conclude, that the shallows on each side of the isthmus have increased in their extent since the time of Strabo. Pliny speaks of the Crimea as having once been an island; and Dr. Clarke says, that it would again become one, if the waters of the Black Sea were to be once more restored only to the level of those strata of marine shells which may be observed in all the district from the mouths of the Dnieper to the Don.

Though the situation of Perekop* is of so much importance, and it is the chief town of a district; it is, in fact, a small village, containing only 38 houses; but, during the summer, it is a scene of great bustle and commerce: 20,000 cart-loads of salt alone, annually leave its gates for the supply of the south of Russia. These carts are drawn sometimes by camels, but generally by white oxen, from two to six in each vehicle. "Their freight is so easily obtained, that they have only to drive the carts axle deep into the shallow water upon the eastern side of the isthmus, and then they may load them as fast as they please, the salt being there like sand. The sight of so many hundred waggons, by fifties at a time, in the water, is very striking; they appear like fleets of small boats floating upon the surface of the waves. The driver of each waggon pays a tax of twelve roubles to the crown. There are various reservoirs of salt in the Crimea; but those of Perekop, used from time immemorial, are the most abundant; and they are considered as inexhaustible. Taurica Chersonesus was an emporium of this commodity in the earliest periods of history. It was then sent, as it is now, by the Black Sea to Constantinople and to the Archipelago; by land to Poland, and over all Russia, to Moscow, to St. Petersburgh, and even to Riga. The oxen, after their long journey, are occasionally sold with the cargoes they have brought; and sometimes they return again the whole of that immense distance with other merchandise. The caravans halt every evening at sun set, when the drivers turn their oxen loose to graze, and lie down themselves in the open air, to pass the night upon the steppe."

* Perekop, Dr. Clarke says, is a Russian word signifying the intrenchment of the isthmus. The Tâtar name is *Or-Kapy*, *i. e.* the gate of the fortification. It is the Taphros of the Greeks.

THE CRIMEA.

In describing the Crimea, our principal guides will be Pallas, Dr. Clarke, and Dr. Lyall; it may, however, be acceptable to our readers, if we premise a very short history and general view of this peninsula.

The Peninsula has been known under different appellations. It is the Taurica Chersonesus of ancient geography. By some travellers in the middle ages, it is called the Island of Caffa. In more modern times, it has been known under the name of Crim Tartary, and at present is called the Crimea. It is situated between the parallels of 44° 40′ and 46° 5′ North, and the meridians of 32° 45′ and 36° 39′ East; and is of a lozenge shape, having the Black Sea and the Sea of Azof on every side, except at its northern angle, where it is joined to the Continent by the Isthmus of Perekop. It is supposed to contain about three millions and a half English statute acres, the far greater proportion of which consists of steppes, or desert plains. On its north-east side is the Mud Sea, a shallow gulf of the Sea of Azof, called by the ancients, *putris palus*, or the putrid gulf. This also cuts deep with many bays into the eastern shores of the Crimea; and is itself divided from the Sea of Azof by the Peninsula of Arabat, which projects from the Crimea on the south-east. This peninsula is not more than a mile, or a mile and a half broad, but extends seventy miles to the north. To the south of it is a projection of the Crimea, called the Peninsula of Kertsch, anciently the kingdom of Bosphorus: to the east of it are the Straits of Taman, anciently the Cimmerian Bosphorus, dividing it from the isle of the same name, beyond which is Cuban Tartary. The southern and western

coasts of the Crimea are entirely washed by the Black Sea.

From this outline, it will appear that the Crimea is naturally divided into three parts: Crimea Proper, the Peninsula of Kertsch, and the Isle of Taman. More than three-fourths of Crimea Proper towards the North, consists of steppes, without trees, but affording good pasture, and abounding with salt lakes and marshes. The soil varies more than the soil of steppes generally does, being partly a white sandy clay, partly a black vegetable loam, mixed, near its southern boundary, with chalk and limestone. It abounds in petrifactions and the remains of marine productions, which has led to the supposition, that it was formerly covered by the Black Sea. The southern portion of the Crimea is mountainous. The principal ridges stretch from east to west; their southern declivities are much steeper than their northern. Some of these hills are said to be 1,200 feet above the level of the Black Sea, and are covered with snow till the end of May: their sides are clothed with excellent timber, fit for ship-building. The soil is calcareous, mixed with clay, and is of great fertility, producing wheat, rye, barley, hemp, tobacco, and grapes, abundantly. Petrifactions are found even on their summits. There is only one river of importance in the Crimea,—the Salghir; but there are many smaller streams, which are rapid and dangerous after heavy rains, although, in the dry season, they are nearly without water. The appearance and soil of the Peninsula of Kertsch are very different from those of Crimea Proper. From west to east, it extends eighty-four miles in length; and its medium breadth, from north to south, is twenty-four miles. The isthmus joining it to the Crimea, is a level plain, ten miles broad. To the east of this, the land

rises into gentle eminences; there are also hills of some elevation in other parts; and the shores both of the Euxine and the Sea of Azof, are high, steep, and difficult of access. Salt-lakes abound between the hills; and the water produced by digging wells on the lower ground is mostly brackish. The rivulets are few, and dry in summer. There is little timber, but abundance of fruit-trees in the gardens and orchards, the soil, except near the salt-lakes and marshes, being fertile. The singular spit of land which separates the Mud Sea from the Sea of Azof, is mostly a plain, affording excellent pasture. Petrified shells, salt-springs, a spring of petroleum, a mineral said to be a native prussiate of iron, and, on the summit of a hill, a marsh containing water, bitter and salt to the taste, and of a disagreeable smell,—are the chief natural curiosities of this strip of land. On the leaves and stems of the vegetables growing round this marsh, is found what is supposed to be sulphuret of soda. The Isle of Taman, which is included in the same government as the Crimea, is forty miles in length from east to west, by twenty-six in breadth from north to south. Its shores are steep, and its surface is in general elevated. The soil of the interior is fertile, though it does not spontaneously produce either trees or shrubs. There are some salt springs, and many springs of fresh water, but no running streams. Mineral oil, or petroleum, abounds in the interior; there is also one mud volcano; and two of the hills at the western extremity are said to be volcanic.

The population of the Crimea, before it came under the power of Russia, consisted of Turks, Greeks, Armenians, and Tâtars. At present, there are no Turks, not many Armenians, and very many of the Tâtars have quitted it, with their families and flocks,

and have taken up their abode on the steppes of the Continent. The Tâtars of the Crimea, according to Pallas, may be divided into three classes. The Nagays are the least mixed of the Mongolian race; they devote their whole attention to agriculture and the rearing of cattle. A second race, resembling the first, but not of such pure Mongolian descent, inhabit the plain from the edge of the hilly country to the Isthmus of Perekop. The third class occupy the southern valleys of the mountains; they have a distinct and peculiar physiognomy, with the beard stronger and hair lighter than the other two; they are stationary, and devote their whole attention to agriculture and the cultivation of hemp and tobacco. We shall have occasion to notice more particularly the manners and customs of these races, in tracing the routes of the Travellers we are following.

The Cimmerians, a tribe of the Thracians, are the most ancient inhabitants of the Taurica Chersonesus of whom history gives us any information. They were driven to the high lands by the Scythians, about 665 years before the Christian era. A hundred years afterwards, the Greeks formed colonies on the southern shores, where they carried on a flourishing commerce; and the eastern peninsula having been subjected by them, was erected into the kingdom of Bosphorus. About 100 years before the birth of Christ, Mithridates reduced this kingdom, as well as the rest of the Chersonesus, under his dominion. On the fall of Mithridates, the Romans took possession of the Crimea; but the kingdom of Bosphorus appears to have still subsisted as a dependent power. The Alani, the Goths, the Huns, and other barbarous tribes, in succession, conquered the Chersonesus; though at times they professed a nominal subjection

to the Eastern Emperors. In 1237, the Crimea became a province of the Western Tâtar empire. It was indebted for its recovery from the impoverished and desolated state to which it had been reduced by this repeated change of masters, to the commercial establishments of the Venetians and Genoese. The latter by permission of the Tâtars, in the fourteenth century, rebuilt Caffa, the ancient Theodosia, making it the centre of their commerce on the Black Sea. At this period, a lucrative trade was carried on from the Crimea with India and China. The caravans engaged in this trade, either passed from Cathay, or Northern China, across the Amour, and through Central Asia, by the north of the Caspian, to Azof: or across the Caspian to Sevastopol in the Crimea. In 1441, it became, for a very short period, an independent Tâtar monarchy. This was destroyed by the Turks, who, at the same time, expelled the Genoese. It continued under the actual power of the Turks, though nominally under its own khans, till 1774, when the Empress Catherine II. stipulated for its independence. In 1781, a civil war broke out among the Crim Tâtars, in which the Russians interfered; and in 1783, the reigning khan abdicated his throne in favour of Russia. Her soverignty was confirmed by a treaty with the Sultan, in 1784, since which time it has remained a province of the Russian empire.

Between Perekop and the capital of the Crimea, there are so few villages, that Dr. Lyall was impressed with the belief that this part of the peninsula was in a state of great desolation,—one among many instances of the erroneous conclusions which travellers may often draw from particular facts appearing strongly to warrant their opinions. An excellent statistical map of the Crimea and subsequent infor-

mation convinced him that he had judged by a very fallacious criterion. At the short distance of five or six versts on all sides, there are flourishing Tâtar villages. It must be acknowledged, that the dominion of the Russians has in many respects proved a curse to the Tâtars. Their buildings have been destroyed, their national feelings wantonly outraged, and, by such measures, their former character has been much changed. "The Tâtars of the Crimea of the present generation," says Dr. Lyall, "differ considerably from their ancestors. Forty years of subjection, dependence, and oppression, have operated in diminishing, if not eradicating, all the higher feelings and principles of savage life, without having supplanted them by the benign influence of knowledge, civilisation, and religion. Since the reign of Alexander, it must, at the same time, be candidly admitted, that many measures have been concerted so as to make the burden of despotism less and less sensible to his Crimean subjects, and to elucidate and illuminate their minds."

The present capital of the Crimea is Sympheropol, to which the Tâtars gave the name of *Ak-metchet* (white mosque), from an edifice of that description erected by Ibrahim Bey. The natives still call it by this name, although the Russians have restored its ancient apellation. It is 963 miles from Moscow, and 1,408 from St. Petersburgh: it is finely situated in a valley, watered by the Salghir, at the foot of the Tauridan mountains, and, in summer, has a lively appearance from the numerous gardens, clumps of trees, and extensive fields, which either surround it, or are intermixed with the houses. The old city is built in the manner of all Tâtar towns, with narrow streets crossing one another at irregular angles, unpaved and filthy. At first sight, a stranger imagines

he is wandering among half-ruined walls; all the houses being built within courts, surrounded with walls so high that only the tops of the houses can be seen: and these walls, as well as the houses, are built of irregular masses of limestone. The mortar is principally made of clay, with a trifling intermixture of sand and lime. The out-buildings are of plastered wicker-work; and all the roofs are covered with tiles laid on interwoven osiers and a bed of clay. The streets of the new town are wide, and contain all the public buildings; none of which, however, are in the least worthy of notice, except the cathedral, which, taken as a whole, Dr. Lyall pronounces the handsomest ecclesiastical structure he had seen in the empire. Besides four mosques with minarets, there are also an Armenian church, a Roman Catholic church, and a synagogue. The population is about 2,000, consisting principally of Tâtars: Greeks, Moldavians, Armenians, and Jews form the remainder. It was long the residence of the celebrated Pallas, to whom we are indebted for the best account of the Crimea, although his description of the beauty and healthiness of this part of the peninsula has been charged with some degree of exaggeration. The place of the Professor has been supplied, Dr. Lyall says, by one of the first naturalists of the age, Mr. Christian Steven, who, after having travelled in the Caucasus, Georgia, and the Crimea, has been appointed director of the botanic garden at Nikita on the southern coast, where he spends several months in the year. At Sympheropol, Dr. Lyall also met with a polite reception from a very interesting personage, well known to many persons in this country, — the Sultan Katti-Gherry Krim-Gherry, a descendant of the Tâtar khans of the Crimea, born among the mountains of Caucasus. Having become acquainted

with the Scotch missionaries at Karass, this Mohammedan prince was led to embrace the Christian faith; and for some time he resided with Dr. Paterson at St. Petersburgh. From that capital he came to this country, where he prosecuted his studies for some time at the Protestant Dissenting College at Homerton, and subsequently in the University of Edinburgh. Here he became enamoured of a young lady, his present sultana, whom he succeeded in inducing to leave father and mother, kindred and country, to reside with him in the Crimea, to the great displeasure, it is said, of her family. The sultan accompanied the Rev. Lewis Way in his journey through Russia and the Crimea in 1817-18. Dr. Lyall represents him as anxious to be instrumental in the conversion of the Crim Tâtars to the Christian religion. He was at that time arranging a small school in commencement of his plans. "Being now a Russian subject, and having necessarily relinquished the property in the Caucasus to which he was heir, the Emperor Alexander has lately bestowed upon him a pension of 6,000 rubles, which, with the addition of the small income of the sultana, enables him to live comfortably, At Sympheropol, his house is arranged in the English style. Almost every portable article within it, was of British manufacture, and British customs and manners alone prevailed. His wife seemed a very modest, amiable person, and is highly prized by her husband, by whom she had one daughter at the time of our visit, and, I believe, has now two or three more children." The sultan obligingly accompanied Dr. Lyall in his tour round the southern coast.

While Dr. Lyall was strolling one evening in the Tâtar division of the town, "the sonorous, but harsh sound of music in a Tâtar-coffee-house, induced him

to ascend a narrow staircase and enter it when quite a novel scene presented itself. A single large room was divided by low, wooden partitions, surmounted by rails as ornaments, into four small compartments, the floors of which were elevated a few inches above the level of the passage. In each of these apartments was a low table, on which stood an immense salver, with live charcoal, surrounded by groups of Tâtars and Greeks, in their native costumes, who were sitting cross-legged upon the floor, drinking coffee and smoking pipes, with their usual gravity and taciturnity, apparently as little affected by the thundering of the musicians, as if they had been in a remote desert. They all wore loose red and yellow boots, in the Eastern style; and had left their slippers at the entrance, which they use for the same purpose as ladies wear pattens in Great Britain. All of them wore small caps, except the *hadjis*, or those who had made a pilgrimage to Mecca or Medina, whose heads were surmounted with high white turbans, as a badge of honour. Two violins, held like the violoncello, and a tambarine, regaled us, during our stay, with most inharmonious music. Although both the Tâtars and the Greeks shewed great apathy, yet they must have some taste for the amusement, since the master of the house finds it advantageous to employ the musicians very frequently."

At the distance of thirty versts from Sympheropol, proceeding southward, is Bakhtchiserai (garden palace), the ancient Tâtar capital of the Crimea, romantically situated in a narrow dale between high mountains, "presenting an appearance somewhat like that of Matlock." The *Tchuruk-su* (stinking stream) traverses the town. The houses rise in terraces along the sides of the hills, interspersed with gardens, vine-

yards, and clumps of trees, chiefly Lombardy poplars, watered by numerous fountains and canals. The numerous minarets, the ancient palace, with the adjoining mausoleum, and a profusion of white chimneys rising amidst the richest foliage, produce a peculiarly beautiful and picturesque effect.* The view breaks all at once upon the traveller; and although the town does not contain one magnificent object, the *tout-ensemble* is extremely imposing. The interior of the place, however, by no means corresponds to its external beauty; the streets are narrow, crooked, and dirty, the houses small, the shops in general mean. The old Tâtar town suffered much from the wanton barbarity of the Russians, after the Crimea came into their possession; and their love of destruction seems to have been especially directed against the palace of the khans, which, in the time of its ancient splendour, was the most perfect and most remarkable monument of oriental magnificence in the Crimea. A French author thus epigrammatically, but justly, describes its general arrangement at this period:—"Mohamed, the dead, and the horses were on one side; the sovereign, the wives, and the falcons on the other." It is said to be the intention of the Russian Government to restore it to its former state. Bakhtchiserai contains a population amounting to 10,212; of whom upwards of 7,000 are Mohammedans, and upwards of 1,100 Jews. The Tâtars and Jews have their respective magistrates. There are no Russian burgesses. Its trade is very inconsiderable. Bakhtchiserai contained in 1822, according to an official document cited by Dr. Lyall, a population of 10,212 souls, of whom 8,200

* The town is stated to contain three churches, two Greek and one Armenian; thirty-two mosques, one synagogue, and seventy-four fountains.

were Mohammedans. There are not above five or six families of Russians, Catherine II. having given up this place entirely to the Tâtars; there are about eight Armenian families; the few remaining Christians are chiefly Greeks. In the above estimate, however, are included 1,120 Karaite Jews, who rank as freemen of the town, but inhabit the neighbouring Jewish colony of *Tchufout Kala* (Jew's castle), distant about four versts. Their village, situated on the summit of some steep cliffs, has a singular and picturesque appearance. These Jews, having lived from time immemorial under the dominion of the Tâtars, have in a great measure adopted their customs, manners, language, and dress. Their character, according to Dr. Clarke, is "directly opposite to that generally attributed to their brethren in other countries, being altogether without reproach. Their honesty is proverbial in the Crimea; and the word of a Karaïte is considered as equal to a bond. Almost all of them are engaged in trade or manufactures. They observe their fasts with the most scrupulous rigour, abstaining even from snuff and from smoking for twenty-four hours together. In the very earliest periods of the Jewish history, this sect separated from the main stem; such, at least, is their own account. They observe extraordinary care in the education of their children, who are publicly instructed in the synagogues; and in this respect, the Tâtars are not deficient. We rarely entered any Tâtar village in the day time, without seeing children assembled in some public place, receiving their instruction from persons appointed to superintend the care of their education; reciting with audible voices passages from the Koran, or busied in copying manuscript lessons placed before them."

Adjoining the village of these Jews is their ceme-

tery, than which nothing, we are told, can be imagined more calculated to inspire holy meditation. This "field of the dead" is "a beautiful grove, filling a chasm of the mountains, which is rendered gloomy by the shade of lofty trees and overhanging rocks. A winding path conducts through this solemn scene. Several tombs of white marble present a fine contrast to the deep green of the foliage; and female figures in white veils, are constantly seen offering their pious lamentations over the graves." This little valley is so highly prized by the Jews, that, according to Pallas, whenever the ancient khans wished to extort from them a present, or to raise a contribution, it was sufficient to threaten them with the destruction of these sacred trees, under the pretence of wanting fuel or timber.

Six versts from Bakhtchiserai, the road to Sevastopol crosses the Katcha, a small stream flowing through a beautiful valley. Soon afterwards, the traveller enters on an extensive vale, through which the road winds along the course of the Belbek or Kabarta, till within three or four versts of the bay of Sevastopol. A singular scene here presents itself. "On the right," says Dr. Lyall, "we beheld white and brown calcareous hills, sterile as imagination can conceive, whose base was diversified by broken rocks and patches of naked clayey soil, peeping through parched grass, and enlivened only by a few stunted shrubs and blooming wild flowers. On the left stretched a plain of most luxuriant pasture, bounded by gentle hills and lofty mountains, covered with woods and plantations, gardens, nurseries, and vineyards. The road, cut through the base of the hills, forms, as it were, a line of demarcation between the most luxuriant vegetation and almost total sterility." A fine bay of the Black Sea

opens to the view on quitting this valley; and on reaching the summit of a hill, the town and part of Sevastopol are seen below. This town, the Tâtar name of which is Aktiar, (more properly *Ak-Yar*, so called from its white rocks,) stands on the large and magnificent bay of the same name. Its harbour is one of the finest in Europe, the largest vessels being able to lie within a cable's length of the shore: it is divided into three coves, affording shelter in every wind, and favourable situations for repairing or building. No vessels, however, are built here, as the timber must all be floated down the Bog or the Dnieper, the Crimea not affording materials fit for building, though there is always enough for repairing: the plan of the harbour somewhat resembles that of Malta. Sevastopol, seen from a distance, makes a very lively appearance, with its white walls and gaudy domes rising amid green trees, and the noble sheet of water, covered by numerous vessels, in the fore-ground. A public garden, laid out in terraces on an elevation in the middle of the town, has a pleasing effect. The houses are extremely good, all in the modern Italian style of architecture; and the streets are wide and regular, intersecting each other at right angles, but unpaved. The public buildings consist of two churches, a third in the docks, the admiralty, the arsenal, the hospital, the magazines, the barracks of the garrison, and marine barracks. It is a rising place. The population was estimated, in 1822, at 22,000, which Dr. Lyall considers as an exaggeration. It is, in fact, constantly fluctuating, but the fixed residents are believed not to exceed 3,000. The town is said to contain, however, 1,750 houses.

Aktiar is described by Dr. Clarke as the very centre of the most interesting antiquities of the Crimea; but when Dr. Lyall visited it, he was told by a Russian

of high rank, "that almost every thing worthy of observation was now annihilated; the devastation having been nearly completed within the last few years." The Emperor Alexander, indeed, on his visit to the peninsula, in 1818, had given strict orders for the preservation of all the remnants of antiquity then visible; but these orders unfortunately came too late. "The country included within the isthmus formed by the principal harbour of Aktiar or Inkerman," says Dr. Clarke, "that is to say, by the *Ctenus* of Strabo and the port of Balaclava, or *Portus Symbolorum*, is the Heracleotic Chersonesus* so accurately described by that author as a portion of the *Peninsula Major*, or Taurica Chersonesus. Within this small district stood the cities of old and new Chersonesus; Eupatorium; the temples of Diana, and the promontory Parthenium, celebrated in the story of Iphigenia; the famous Chersonesan mole, with numerous ramparts, tombs, canals, and other works, the memory of which historians have preserved, but the last traces of whose magnificence the Russians daily labour to annihilate." The ruins and caverns of In-Kerman (the town of caverns), at the extremity of the principal harbour, and about three versts from Aktiar, are particularly deserving of the attention of every traveller who visits this part of the Crimea. Dr. Clarke has given a detailed description of them in his best manner. He left Aktiar in a shallop with twelve oars, accompanied by the commodore and the metropolitan. "Before we reached Inkerman, some very remarkable excavations appeared in the rocks by the side of the bay, visible at a considerable distance. Upon examination,

* So called, because it was peopled by colonists from the city of Heracleum, in Asia Minor.

they proved to be chambers, with arched windows, cut in the solid stone with marvellous art and labour. The bishop described them as retreats of Christians in the earliest ages of the church. But to give an idea of what we saw at Inkerman, would baffle every power of description. The rocks all around the extremity of the harbour, are hewn into chapels, monasteries, cells, sepulchres, and a variety of works, which, by their multitude and intricacy, astonish and confound the beholder. A river flows here into the bay, after watering perhaps the most beautiful valley in Europe. At the mouth of this river, the most remarkable antiquities are situate, the excavations appearing on both sides. The first caverns visible to persons approaching from Aktiar, are upon the south side: these have been converted into magazines for gunpowder. It was with great difficulty we could prevail upon the sentinels to suffer us to enter the caves where the ammunition is kept. They seem to have constituted an entire subterraneous monastery: the rock has been so wonderfully perforated, that it now exhibits a church, with several chambers, and long passages leading off in various directions. From these caverns, a fine prospect of the valley of Inkerman appears through the wide, open arches, together with heaps of ruins upon the opposite side of the river. The principal cave seems to have been the church. We found several stone coffins cut in the rock; these had all been opened. We noticed some Greek inscriptions above them, but the characters were too faint, and too imperfectly engraven, to be legible. The difficulty of copying or deciphering them was increased by the obscurity of the caverns. It was now evening; and night coming on, the full moon rose in great splendour over the long

valley of Inkerman, illuminating a landscape which, as it was seen through the arches of these gloomy chambers, is not to be described. Upon the opposite side of the river, excavations were still more frequent, and somewhat further from the bay. Crossing an ancient bridge, whose fair-proportioned arch and massive superstructure indicated the masonry of some remote age, we found the caverns to be so numerous, that they occupied one entire side of a considerable mountain. Upon its summit were the towers and battlements of a very large fortress, supposed to have belonged to the Genoese, but perhaps originally part of the fortifications erected by Diophantus, one of the generals of Mithridates. From the appearances of staircases, leading also to the very caverns before mentioned, it is evident that a fortress must have stood there ever since the excavations were first made, whatsoever be the date of their origin. Several chapels, together with the remains of some sepulchres, apparently constructed for the bodies of distinguished persons, are among these chambers, which are now tenanted by the Tátars and their goats. The stone-coffins serve as drinking-troughs for the cattle: the altars, once smoking with incense, are now filthy receptacles for dung and mud. Pallas, who had paid considerable attention to the subject, believed that all these remains, whether of buildings or excavated chambers, originated in a settlement of Arians, who, when Christianity met with general persecution, fled to these rocks, and fortified themselves against the barbarous inhabitants of the peninsula. Similar works are found in other parts of the Crimea, particularly at Shûlû and Mankoupi; also in Italy and other parts of Europe: and they have generally been attributed

to the labours of those Christians who fled from persecution." *

The air of the valley of Inkerman is very unhealthy during the autumn and summer months: indeed the same may be said, in some degree, of nearly the whole peninsula. Tertian fevers are the most prevalent complaints. The exhalations of extensive marshes, that are often covered by the sea, and that surround the mouth of a stream at the end of the Bay of Aktiar, are supposed by Pallas to be the cause of the unwholesomeness of the air. The soil near the town is full of Saltpetre; and a manufactory of it, on a very simple and easy process, has lately been established. The Crimea is subject to the plague of locusts. When Dr. Lyall was here, he saw about 200 Tâtars, armed with branches of trees tied together, and clubs, occupied in destroying them, by beating them against the ground. They seldom rose above two or three feet from the ground, but sprang up in myriads as he rode among them. There are two species known here, — the common migratory locust, and the herald, or messenger locust, so named because it precedes the common locust; it is nearly twice its size. The migratory locust, when fluttering in the sun's rays, exhibits a fiery appearance, from the redness of its legs and inferior wings; it possesses wonderful strength in its limbs, so that, when pressed down by the hand on a table, they have almost power to raise the fingers. Locusts destitute of wings are also sometimes found in the Crimea. A small kind of caterpillar seems peculiar to the peninsula, which is very destructive to the vine, committing its depredations in April and May: when full-grown, it is half an inch in length, and the thickness of a straw; it has sixteen legs;

* Clarke, vol. ii. *p.* 203.

Pallas regards it as a nondescript. There are three species of venomous insects, particularly annoying to travellers, in the Crimea. One seems to resemble the large black tarantula of the south of Italy, but is of a tremendous size. Dr. Clarke caught one with a pair of tongs, which, when extended in a natural posture upon a table, embraced with its claws a circumference whose diameter equalled nearly three inches. The second species, also a spider, is smaller, but more formidable. Pallas assured Dr. Clarke, that its bite had proved fatal in cases where he had himself attended the patient; it is, however, rare. The third kind of venomous insect is the centipede, or *scolopendra morsitans*, the bite of which is terrible; it is very common in dry timber, beneath stones, and in fissures of the ground. In the mountainous districts of the Crimea, scorpions are found.

Dr. Clarke appears to have satisfactorily ascertained the site of the ancient town of Eupatorium. The plain lying behind it and Chersonesus is covered with ruined buildings. The latter, however, is by far the most interesting object, especially when we reflect on its former grandeur. So long as the Tâtars possessed the Crimea, its magnificent ruins were regarded with surprise and reverence; but the Russians had no such feelings; and Pallas significantly remarks, that the construction of Sevastopol finished the destruction of this ancient city. Some traces of the city, however, still remained when Dr. Lyall visited it in May 1822. Immensely thick walls, at one place penetrated by a low arch, rose to the height of six or eight feet above the level of the ground, held together by a "marly cement," similar to that employed at the castle of Inkerman; great quantities of stone, also, lay scattered on the plain.

The Heracleotic Chersonesus is supposed to have been bounded by a line running from Sevastopol or Inkerman, to Balaclava. The port of Balaclava (*Bella Clava*, the beautiful port) is represented by Dr. Clarke as one of the most remarkable in the Crimea: it is completely sheltered by high hills, and its entrance is so narrow, that the waters within it are as smooth as those of a lake, even when the sea is raging tremendously at its entrance. It is about a mile in length, about 200 fathoms in breadth, and in depth, even near the shore, from fifteen to twenty fathoms. Its harbour is most accurately described by Strabo. The town itself possesses nothing remarkable, except its fortress, which is supposed to have been built by the Greeks, and repaired by the Genoese. Its population consist of about 1,200 Greeks, from the Morea; a set of pirates to whom Catherine II. assigned the place for the services they rendered to Russia in her war with the Turks.

From Balaclava, Dr. Lyall proceeded by Muchulatka, to the celebrated valley of Baidar. The road leads through a pleasant dell, bounded by rifted rocks, the sides and summits of which are covered with the oak, the ash, the cherry-tree, the mountain-ash, and the hazel. Respecting the much-extolled beauty of this fine valley, the accounts of travellers singularly differ. It has been described by Lady Craven and Mrs. Guthrie, under the title of the Tauric Arcadia and the Crimean Tempe. Dr. Clarke, however, says, that it will not admit of a comparison with many of the beautiful scenes in Switzerland, or even Norway and Sweden; and he seems disposed to give the preference to the vale of Balaclava. Pallas considers even the vales of Caucasus as far surpassing this celebrated spot. It extends about ten miles from south-west to

north-east; its breadth varying from five to six. On the south, it is bounded by woody mountains, which run along the sea-coast; on the east, by a rapid declivity; on the north, by a ridge of rocks, which divide it from another valley, and by wooded hills; and on the west, by the rocks of Varnutka. Meadows, woods, corn-fields, gardens, vineyards, enclosed and intersected by green hedges and plantations, neat villages, and numerous clear rivulets, fill the eye in every direction. "So rich is the foliage, that ranges of Tâtar huts along the sides of the hills, and scattered throughout the plain, are nearly concealed from the view, or only shew their rustic tops amidst masses of verdure. The fine oaks and enormous walnut-trees are peculiarly remarkable. Pallas alludes to a tree of the latter species, which annually produced from 80 to 100,000 nuts."

From Balaclava all along to Caffa, or Theodosia, the Tauridan mountains are described by Dr. Lyall as forming an "immense terrace, or line of bold and lofty promontory, broken into mountains, sometimes presenting their perpendicular or overhanging fronts, sometimes exhibiting their fantastic profiles, separated into cliffs and peaks, and sometimes descending by gentle declivities to the valleys, or stretching to numerous beautiful bays of the sea. The distance between the mountains and the sea may vary from two and three to six and eight miles; and the intervening space is occupied by a succession of fine valleys, from Laspi to near Sudak. The imposing boundary is here and there naked, but is generally covered with woods or scattered trees; and many transparent streams issue from between the rocks, which at times swell into cascades, and roll towards the ocean, watering the low lands in their progress." Dr. Clarke, when speaking of this part of the Crimea, breaks out

into the following panegyric: "If there exist upon earth a terrestrial paradise, it is to be found in the district intervening between Kûtchûckoy (a village upon the most southern point of the Crimea) and Sudak. Protected by encircling Alps from every cold and blighting wind, and only open to those breezes which are wafted from the south, the inhabitants enjoy every advantage of climate and of situation. Continual streams of crystal water pour down from the mountains upon their gardens, where every species of fruit known in the rest of Europe, and many that are not, attain the highest perfection. Neither unwholesome exhalations, nor chilling winds, nor venomous insects nor poisonous reptiles, nor hostile neighbours, infest their blissful territory. The life of its inhabitants resembles that of the golden age. The soil, like a hot-bed, rapidly puts forth such a variety of spontaneous produce, that labour becomes merely an amusing exercise. Peace and plenty crown their board; while the repose they so much admire, is interrupted only by harmless thunder, reverberating in the rocks above them, or by the murmur of the waves upon the beach below." The learned Traveller visited the Heracleotic Peninsula twice. In his second excursion, he was accompanied by Pallas, with whom he had an opportunity of exploring some of the wildest retreats in this part of the Crimea, where the Genoese*

* In the south of the Crimea, the Genoese language is not yet quite extinct. During their long residence in this country, they not only introduced many of their own terms into the native language of the peninsula, but incorporated many Tâtar and Greek words with the Italian. Of this, Pallas and Dr. Clarke give several specimens; but, in some of these, it is difficult to determine to which language the origin of the word ought to be referred, or whether it may not, in both languages, be traced to a common origin.

have erected fortresses upon the most precipitous and inaccessible places. One of the most remarkable of these is the citadel of Mankoup, which is of extraordinary magnitude, and, according to Dr. Clarke, may be truly described as being in the clouds. It was originally built by the Greeks, possessed afterwards by the Genoese, and then taken possession of by a colony of Jews. It covers the summit of a semicircular, insulated mountain, the ascent to which has once been paved the whole way, but is now extremely difficult. On every side appear caverns and gloomy passages, hewn in the solid rock. Upon the most elevated part is a beautiful plain, covered with a fine turf, from which all the other mountains, hills, woods, and villages may be discerned. "While with dismay and caution," says Dr. Clarke, "we crept upon our hands and knees, to look over the brink of these fearful heights, a half-clad Tâtar, wild as the wind, of the north, mounted upon a colt equally unsubdued, without saddle or bridle, except the twisted stem of a wild vine, galloped to the very edge of the precipice, and there, as his horse stood prancing upon the borders of eternity, amused himself in pointing out to us the different places in the vast district which the eye commanded." A few steps lead from the north-eastern point of the mountain down to a cavern, called by the Tâtars, "The Cape of the Winds." Dr. Clarke supposes it to have been a place of military observation; it is hewn out of the solid stone, and is open on four sides. Through the arched apertures, "a most extensive view, over distant mountains and rolling clouds, forms a sublime spectacle." In the opinion of our Traveller, there is nothing, in any part of Europe, which can surpass the tremendous grandeur of the scenery.

From this mountain, Dr. Clarke went, by way of Shûlû, a village belonging to Professor Pallas, to Balaclava. In his road, he passed several pits from which the Tâtars dig that kind of fuller's clay called *Keff-kil* (literally, foam-earth,) and by the Germans, *meerschaum*. "This substance, before the capture of the Crimea, was a considerable article of commerce with Constantinople, where it is used in the public baths to cleanse the hair of the women. It is often sold to German merchants, for the manufacture of those beautiful tobacco pipes that are called *ecume de mer* by the French." Since the interruption of commerce between the Crimea and Turkey, the clay requisite in this manufacture has been dug up near Eski Shekhr, in Anatolia.

In Crimea Proper, the vale of Sudak, and the town of Caffa, are the only other objects which our limits will permit us to notice. This beautiful vale, which extends from the mountains to the sea-shore, is upwards of three versts in length, by from two to three in breadth. A rivulet flows through it into the sea. Vineyards and groves of trees, intermixed with fine poplars, abound on all sides. The cottages of the proprietors, one or two stories high, tiled and whitewashed after the European manner, add greatly to the beauty of the scene. The vineyards, which belong to the crown, are of considerable extent: some of the vines are native, but most of them exotic. The kinds of wine now made here, chiefly from foreign vines, are called, red and white wine of Zante, red and white wine of Corfu, red French wine, white Hungarian wine, and red claret; besides different kinds of red and white Crimean wine. The whole quantity made in 1821, amounted to 60,000 *vedros*, each of fifteen small-sized bottles. About four versts from

the vineyards is the castle of Sudak, supposed to have been built by the Genoese: when entire, it must have been a place of great strength. A few Tâtar houses near it, and others scattered over the plain, form the modern village of Sudak. In ancient times, this place had attained such celebrity for its extensive commerce, that all the Greek possessions in the Crimea were at one period denominated *Sugdiana.*

On the post road from the Tâtar capital of the Crimea to Caffa and Kertch, is Karassu-bazar (black water market), the great mart of the peninsula, especially for fruit and wine, where also is held a great annual fair for horses and cattle. The town contains a Russian church, a Greek church, a fine Roman Catholic church, recently erected, an Armenian church, about twenty mosques, and a synagogue. Its inhabitants, estimated by Dr. Lyall at nearly 5,000, are Tâtars, Armenians, Greeks, Italians, Jews, and Russians. It contains several tanneries, candle and soap manufactories, and tile-works. It has also long been famed for its manufacture of red and yellow morocco, which is soft and pliant like silk, and at the same time thick and strong.

Caffa, which has generally, but erroneously, been supposed to be the Theodosia of the ancients,* is a sea-port town, standing near a beautiful bay, protected

* Dr. Clarke has cited several authorities, which seem to prove, that Caffa is the ancient Χαῦον, or *Chavum,* "one of the three fortresses built by Scilurus and his sons against the generals of Mithridates;" and which rose out of the ruins of Theodosia, from which it was thirty miles distant. Arrian calls Theodosia, the deserted city. Its real site, the learned Traveller supposed to be Starai Crim (Eski Krim, Old Crimea), where are found *tumuli* and ruins of decided antiquity, some of which still retain marks of great magnificence. But this place, Pallas thinks, was the ancient *Cimmerium.*

by a promontory from almost every wind, except those from the north and south-west. Its latitude is 45° 6′ 30″ North; its longitude, 35° 12′ 45″ East. At the period of its greatest prosperity, under the Genoese, it was styled Krim Stamboul, or the Constantinople of the Crimea.* It now occupies only a small level space between the bay and an amphitheatrical range of hills, containing but few streets, and scarcely any of them are regular; but the former splendour of this deserted city is still manifest in the numerous subterraneous chambers and innumerable ruins. When Dr. Clarke was here, the Russian soldiers were permitted to overthrow the beautiful mosques, or to convert them into magazines, to pull down the minarets, tear up the public fountains, and destroy all the public aqueducts, for the sake of a small quantity of lead which they were thereby enabled to obtain. Some of the fountains were of great antiquity, and had been beautifully decorated with marble reservoirs, exhibiting bas-reliefs and inscriptions. Almost every street was once supplied and adorned with them; but they were nearly all demolished when Dr. Clarke arrived. The sculptured marbles of its ancient Greek inhabitants had shared the same fate. The population of Caffa has of late been on the increase, and is now supposed to be between 3 and 4,000 souls, chiefly foreigners, as the Tâtars are not permitted to dwell in any maritime towns. The trade of the place also is reviving, though still inconsiderable, owing to its

* Even at this day, Dr. Lyall says, the Tâtars sometimes call it Kutchuk Stambul, Little Constantinople. In the days of its prosperity, it is said to have contained 36,000 houses within its walls, and, including the suburbs, not fewer than 44,000. Previously to the conquest of the Crimea, it is stated to have contained 16,000 houses. In 1800, fifty families formed the whole population of this once magnificent city.

having two formidable rivals in Odessa and Toganrog. The Russian Government, Dr. Lyall remarks, is endeavouring to re-establish the prosperity of the Crimea, which its armies have desolated, "by instituting foreign as well as Russian colonies; by building barracks and other crown edifices; by organising tribunals and a central seat of justice; by restoring ancient names; by forming a fleet; and by building and renovating towns, as Sevastopol, Sympheropole, Kaffa, and Kertch. But the population is gone; and the most useful and industrious people, the Greeks and the Armenians, have nearly all left the peninsula. Industry and commerce are no more, though the Crimea is surrounded with ports on the Black Sea and the Sea of Azof. Sevastopol may continue the great naval station of the south of Russia; Kaffa and Kertch may become fine small towns of crown edifices; and Sympheropole may boast of its tribunals and its being the seat of a government administration; but the prospect of the Crimea ever regaining its importance under the Russians, is very small."

Between Sympheropole and the vale of Alushta, rises the *Tchadir-dagh*, the Trapezus of Strabo, the highest mountain in the peninsula. Its perpendicular height does not exceed 1,300 feet; but it rises so rapidly from the coast, that its apparent elevation is much greater. Almost the whole of the Crimea may be seen from its summit in clear weather. It was ascended by Mr. Cripps, the companion of Dr. Clarke. On the south, the mountains were seen skirting the coast from Caffa to Balaclava; westward, the chain seemed to terminate at Bakhtchiserai; northward of this line, the whole Crimea and, beyond the isthmus, the Ukraine, forms one vast campaign, consisting of a calcareous deposite, containing the remains of marine

animals. All the higher parts of the Tchadir-dagh exhibit a mass of very compact grey limestone. Its lower district is covered with thick groves. "With what different views," remarks a female traveller (Mrs. Holdernesse), "has this singularly shaped mountain been viewed by different nations, and how plainly have they betokened their several habits in the names which they have chosen to affix to it. The Greeks called it Table Mountain; the Tâtars, Tent Mountain; the Cossacks, Saddle Mountain; but an Englishman at Sevastopol, told a friend of mine, that he considered it as resembling nothing so much as a sirloin of beef!"

Before we take leave of Crimea Proper, we shall avail ourselves of the notices contained in the works of Drs. Clarke and Lyall, relative to the domestic habits of the native Tâtar population. They are divided into three classes: the *moorzas*, or noblemen; the *mullahs*, or priests; and the peasantry. A mullah is at the head of every settlement; and nothing of importance is undertaken without his counsel; his land is ploughed and sown for him; his corn reaped, and carried home; and it is seldom that the proprietor of the soil takes tithe of the priest. The *moorzas* of the Crimea amount to about 250. Their dress resembles that of the Circassians; their manners are elegant, and they ride extremely well. The cottages, even of the poorer sort, are extremely clean. The floor is of earth, kept smooth, firm, and dry, and covered with mats or carpets. The meanest Tâtar has a double dwelling; one for himself and his guests, and one for his women. Sometimes, when a Tâtar has two wives, each of them has a separate chamber. When a stranger arrives, he is conducted to the apartment appropriated for men, and a basin of water and clean napkin are

presented to him, to wash his hands. He has then placed before him, curds, cream, honey in the comb, poached eggs, roasted fowls, fruit, or whatever else the dwelling affords; water is again brought in, after the meal is over, as they eat with the fingers, like other Orientals. In the houses of the rich, a long pipe is then presented, the tube of cherry-tree wood, tipped with ivory or amber. After this, carpets and cushions are laid for the guests, that they may repose. Sour milk, mixed with water, is a favourite beverage; and they consume a great quantity of honey, which is of a very superior quality. Their mode of keeping and taking bees is very rude and simple, but effectual. "They form cylinders, about six inches in diameter, from the trunks of young trees, scooping out almost all the wood from the bark; then, closing the extremities of these cylinders with mortar or with mud, they place them horizontally piled upon one another in their gardens for hives." When they wish to open these cylinders for honey, the bees are detached merely by their being held over a piece of burning paper, without any aid of sulphur. To every cottage is attached a garden, in which the walnut, the mulberry, the vine, the fig, the olive, the pomegranate, the peach, and the apricot abound. In the cultivation of these gardens, they find their chief amusement. Both young and old shave their heads. In summer, they wear a turban; in winter, a kind of helmet of wool; beneath both, at all times, even in the house, is worn a skull-cap. In summer, their legs and feet are naked; in winter, bandaged like the Russians. Their shirts, wide at the sleeves, hang over their fingers' ends: whenever, therefore, they are at work, or at their meals, they are obliged to put back the sleeve, leaving the arm bare. They wear a jacket of

silk or cotton, with a small pocket, in which are kept the steel and flint for kindling their pipes. Their trowsers are large and loose, bound tight below the knee, but falling in thick folds upon the calf of the leg. Some of their customs display a taste for finery. Their pillows are covered with coloured linen; and the napkins for their ablutions are embroidered and fringed. The stool which answers the purpose of a table for supporting a tray during their meals, is often ornamented with carved work, or inlaid with mother-of-pearl. They take great delight in the open air; the men, in the summer months, make little use of the dwelling, sleeping at night beneath the portico, or under a tree. In the principal chamber is a platform, raised about a foot from the floor, and occupying entirely one side of the apartment, on which are ranged their household chests, *dii domestici*, carpets, mats, cushions, and clothes. Their fondness for ablutions seems not to arise merely from a principle of religion, but from a feeling similar to that which makes them delight in being exposed to the air. If any one of them, or of their guests, chances to fall asleep, although but for a few minutes, during the day, water is brought to wash him as soon as he awakes. In every house is to be found one or more copies of the Koran, written in very beautiful characters; these the children are taught, at an early age, not only to read, but to copy. The principal possessions of the Tâtars consist in cattle; herds of thousands are seen in the steppes, and these are often the property of a single person. Dr. Clarke noticed among them many hundred camels; they are employed to draw the waggons in which the Tâtars convey their families. The Tauridan camel has a double hump, being of the Bactrian species. The highest points of

excellence in the Tâtar character, are their sobriety and chastity, by both of which they are universally distinguished. The Tâtar law, in cases of infidelity, sentences the offender to be placed in a grave dug for the purpose, when, the whole neighbourhood being assembled for many versts round, each person present flings a stone, and the delinquent is thus at once stoned to death and buried. The Crim Tâtars, however, now under the Russian government, and subject to Russian laws, are no longer able to exercise their own customs; and this among the rest has fallen into disuse. Of their industry, a pretty correct idea may be formed from their practice of digging in a sitting posture. It is very usual to see them hewing wood with pipes in their mouths, and performing this double operation, even in moderate weather, with the additional incumbrance of a heavy pelisse.

A few miserable houses, a small church, and a jetty of piles, point out to the traveller Kertsch, the ancient Panticapæum,* a place of great importance above 2,000 years ago, under the kings of the Bosphorus. At present, its population does not exceed 3 or 400; but the government intend to rebuild the town. It is, however, rich in antiquities. According to Dr. Clarke, there is perhaps no part of the Crimea where a traveller will find so many. "The peasants gladly exchange for a few copecs, the ancient coins which they have discovered in the soil. The walls of the town are full of broken, and some entire, marbles with bas-reliefs and inscriptions, neglected and ruined." There are also a fortress and cathedral, built by the Genoese, now nearly in ruins. The

* It is from Panticapæum that the imaginary Anacharsis is said to have embarked for Greece.

inhabitants have a tradition, that Mithridates was buried near their town, which is in direct contradiction to Appian's statement, that he was buried by Pompey at Sinope, in the cemetery of his ancestors; but the mound which they shew as his tomb, (called by the Tâtars Attyn Obo,) is so remarkable for its size and height, that Dr. Clarke says, it is scarcely possible to believe it to have been the result of human labour. The tumulus stands on the most elevated spot in this part of the Crimea, and is visible for many miles round. A range of similar *tumuli* continues for some versts along the lofty ridge. One of these, which has been lately opened, exhibited an arched entrance and regular apartments, in which were found several coins and medals. The name of Mithridates is associated with various other objects in this neighbourhood.

FROM TAMAN TO THE CAUCASIAN LINE.

Pallas gives a formidable description of the navigation of the Bosphorus from Kertch or Yenikale, to the isle of Taman; but, except in a storm, Dr. Lyall says, with the Greeks and their excellent boats, there is not the least danger. The isle of Taman was formerly included in Asia; but modern geographers make the river Terek the boundary line. The capital, which now bears the name of the island, was the ancient Phanagoria. The ruins of the ancient city still extended, at the time of Dr. Clarke's visit, over all the suburbs; but vast masses of marble, with inscriptions and bas-reliefs, were barbarously used in the construction of the fortress founded by Suwarrow. This occupies an immense space, surrounded with a ditch and a low rampart with many cannon, but could not withstand a well-directed attack for a single

day. The town of Taman at present contains only 47 houses; its stationary population does not exceed 150 males.

One of the most remarkable antiquities of the Isle of Taman, is a naumachia, 1,000 paces in diameter, and surrounded with ruins and foundations. The whole of its area is paved with broad flat stones. The conduits for conveying water into it, when a naval combat was to take place, still remain. Not far from it are the ruins of a Grecian temple. Twenty-seven miles from the town of Taman, is a mud volcano. On the 27th of February, 1794, an explosion took place, which was followed by a column of fire rising perpendicularly to the height of 50 fathoms, and 30 in circumference: this was visible for about twenty minutes. When it disappeared, it was ascertained that the hill had been rent. Great quantities of mud were thrown into the air: at first it flowed rapidly, then slower, on all sides of the hill. When Pallas visited it, there appeared to be 100,000 cubic fathoms of mire, the whole perfectly uniform, resembling a bluish grey, fat clay: there were some few small stones among it. When Dr. Clarke visited the hill, there was nothing remarkable to be seen, except some springs of nauseous black water within the cavities from which the fire and mud had proceeded. In the neighbourhood of Bughas there is one of the petroleum springs so common in this isle; but it yields but a small quantity. Near that village, a small semicircular bay forms part of the *liman* or estuary of the Kuban. This river, the Hispanis of the Greeks, is one of the largest of the Caucasus. It has its source in the Elborus, and forms the boundary between the Russian empire and the Circassian territory. After a long course, it gives off a branch near Kapil, called the

Tchernoi-Protok (black stream), which falls into the Sea of Azof, while the Kuban at length discharges itself into the Black Sea. A third branch of the same river forms the island Astchenief, which is larger than Taman, but full of sand and marshes. "It was originally a peninsula; but, a short time before the commencement of the Christian era, Pharnaces, King of the Bosphorus, transformed it into an island, by piercing the banks of the Kuban, and turning the waters of this third branch into the Sea of Azof."

Although Bughas is a small village, yet, as it is near the frontiers of Circassia, and the narrowest part of the straits is only about half a mile in width, it is a place of great importance. The Russian Government, accordingly, always maintain a considerable force here, and have besides adopted the wise policy of granting Taman to the Tchernomorskoi Cossacks, or Cossacks of the Black Sea. Their territory comprises upwards of 1,000 square miles, stretching, on the south, from the mouth of the Laba to the embouchure of the Kuban; on the north and east, to the government of Ecaterinoslaf and of the Don Cossacks; and on the west, to the Black Sea, the Bosphorus, and the Sea of Azof. It forms part of the government of the Caucasus, with the exception of Taman, which is in the government of the Crimea. Dr. Clarke thinks, that the Cossacks of the Euxine do not resemble the Cossacks of the Don, either in habits, disposition, or any circumstances of external deportment. Dr. Lyall, on the contrary, could not discover any marked differences between them. They have their own *attaman* and particular administration, but their country is under the inspection of a Russian governor. They are descended from the Cossacks of the Ukraine, and were long the bulwark of the Russian

territories against the Tâtars of the Crimea. As a reward for their great services in the war with Turkey in 1787, the empress granted them the country they now possess, which had then lately been conquered from the Kuban Tâtars. In 1792, about 15,000 males took up their abode on the Kuban, formed their capital and several villages, and were charged with the defence of the line of the Kuban along their own territory. They live chiefly by feeding cattle, fishing, and collecting salt, part of which they exchange with the Circassians. One branch of the military duty of these Cossacks, is, to keep watch upon the *vishka*, or observatories. The construction of these is very simple. A board or floor about four or five feet square, with a low rail round it, is raised in the air to the height of thirty or forty feet, and fastened to four posts or trees, one at each corner. There is frequently no ladder, but only cross bars between the trees on one side, by which the sentinels ascend and descend. These rude watch-towers are found at each of the stations, as well as at every piquet. An immense faggot is prepared, covered with hay, to keep it dry in bad weather, which is kindled the moment an enemy is seen. "It must be a real penance," remarks Dr. Lyall, "to remain four hours in the air in cold and bad weather; but the passive obedience of the Cossacks astonished us. Our road lay close by the *vishkas*, and we often passed them without exciting a look or a motion from the sentinels, who stood like statues, with their backs towards us, and their faces towards Circassia, as if a horde of mountain depredators had been advancing."

The capital of these Cossacks is called Ecaterinodar, or the Gift of Catherine, founded by that empress in 1792. It is a mean and small place, with a population

of about 3,000. When Dr. Lyall was there, he received a visit from a Circassian prince, with his two sons, his priest, two of his nobles, and about a dozen of his suite, all in uniform and well armed. "The prince (named Pshi Mahmet Kadjemko) was a tall, well-proportioned man, of about forty years of age. In his physiognomy, there was no expression of talents, but much of good humour: his complacent manners struck us forcibly. His cap was cupola-formed, made of leather. and bordered with black sheep-skin. His upper garment, made like the coats of the Cossack officers, was dark-coloured and striped; and above it was a coat of chain armour. This was covered with a sort of white linen tunic. The arms were defended by steel armour, silvered and gilt, and otherwise ornamented at the wrists; and below it was a sort of sleeve, which reached the middle of the hand. His blue pantaloons were embroidered with silver, and bound at the knees with red leather garters; and his boots, formed of red and yellow leather, were extremely long, sharp-pointed, and drawn close to the leg and foot by laces. In his right hand, he held a Circassian whip, which, instead of having a lash, terminated in a heart-shaped thong, red on one side and yellow on the other. Such an instument is admirably calculated for making a noise against a horse's sides. His bow and its case, his quiver full of arrows, and his sabre, we were allowed to examine; but his pistols were in the holsters of his saddle on the other side of the Kuban. The sabre was of Damascus workmanship and very beautiful; but its handle, formed of ivory, was so beset with long and sharp projections, like teeth, that we had to put on gloves before grasping it. The prince's sons were plainly dressed in the Circassian style. The *mohla (mullah)* wore a white turban, a wide

flowing, scarlet robe, and yellow boots, and was also armed with a sabre. The suite were moderately well dressed, and were all well armed. As is usual, their guns were enclosed in goat-skin cases, with the hair outside. The Circassians who were here for commercial purposes, were very badly clothed, and all of them had a wild and savage aspect. Having bade us farewell, the prince and his suite betook themselves to their canoes, which they paddled across the river. To our surprise, in a few minutes, the whole of the party, mounted on horseback, issued from an enclosure on the other side of the Kuban. The prince first appeared on a white steed; then the *mohla* upon a dark grey horse; and they were followed by the whole suite. The horses were remarkably fine, and held their heads extremely high. This calvacade paraded up and down upon the banks of the river: the prince's eldest son galloped backwards and forwards, and all seemed busy with preparations, the meaning of which we did not comprehend. At length, the prince and suite set off at full gallop on the plain by the river side, fired their pistols in succession, exercised with their sabres, and then formed a circle, and having made a short *detour*, they repeated the same manœuvres. After another gallop, the whole party halted instantaneously, came down to the beach, formed a line, and, having called to the interpreter to bid us farewell, they rode slowly off."

In this route from this place to Stavropole, Dr. Lyall travelled for a considerable space along the west bank of the Kuban. On the east was an interminable plain. On both sides of the road numerous *tumuli* occurred, similar to those which are to be found in the steppes beyond Kiev, in the Crimea, and, indeed, throughout the south of Russia, and occasionally near Moscow.

The tumuli on the banks of the Kuban are used by the sentinels as observatories. After leaving this river, the route to Stavropole lies through a country presenting the appearance of greater fertility and cultivation; the villages are more numerous, large flocks and herds are seen, and the scenery is rich and varied. A fine dell, richly clothed with wood and shrubbery, introduced our Traveller into Stavropole. This is the chief town of the district, and contains between 2 and 3,000 inhabitants, Russians and Cossacks. The situation is pleasant and salubrious, on the left bank of the Tashla, and the soil around it is rich, and remarkable for its abundant crops of hay. From this place, our Traveller proceeded to Gheorghievsk, which, in 1802, was made the head town of the government of the Caucasus; but the head quarters at present are at Tiflis. Gheorghievsk is 2,094½ versts from Moscow. It stands on the northern branch of the Podkuma (or Little Kuma), not far from its junction with the Great Kuma. Its population, consisting chiefly of Cossacks of the Volga, intermixed with some Russians and Armenians, amounts to about 2,000 souls; and there is a village of the Cossacks at a short distance, which contains about 1,000. Thirty-five versts from this town is Karass, where a Scotch colony has been established. This village is pleasantly situated on a gentle declivity, about three versts from the foot of Beshtau or the Five Mountains, and at the eastern extremity of a fine forest. It consists of two streets, crossing each other at right angles. Through the principal one flows a rivulet, which is described by the Rev. Mr. Glen, the Scottish missionary, as "more useful than ornamental." The buildings are all of wood, a few old ones excepted, which are of wattles. The gardens, orchards, and cultivated fields relieve,

however, the meanness of their appearance, by giving to the place the aspect of cheerful industry. The climate has been represented as not insalubrious; yet, "the *prevailing* disease," Mr. Glen states, "is the ague, which is often very severe in the sultry months of July and August, and the dregs of it often issue in dropsy." Consumption is comparatively little known; but the plague has frequently made its appearance in the neighbourhood, and in the year 1804, committed dreadful ravages. The colony has also been terribly thinned by dysentery; so that, in 1822, when Dr. Lyall visited it, the population of the colony consisted of only three Scotch families and twenty or thirty German families.* The celebrated mountain called the Beshtau, is reckoned 3,000 feet high: it occupied Dr. Lyall two hours to reach the summit. To about half-way up, it is adorned with woods; and higher up, the yellow azalea and the purple anemone grow in great beauty and luxuriance. The view which it commands, is extremely grand and extensive. Mount Caucasus, "the cradle of the human race," is seen in all its majesty.

The numerous ranges of Caucasus all branch from one immense root of mountains, that stretch diagonally across from the Euxine to the Caspian Sea. The principal range is that to which the Elborus belongs: this is the loftiest in the Caucasus, and, according to the latest and most accurate measurement, rises 17,785 feet above the level of the sea. The second branch of the Caucasus stretches in a direction nearly parallel with the first range, but at a great distance: rich and extensive valleys lie between them. The third range, in some respects vaster, and

* The Germans, with the exception of a few families, have since been ordered to leave the colony, and settle elsewhere.

perhaps more interesting than the other two, stretches along the basin of the Euphrates to the south-west, till it terminates at the point where Mount Ararat towers above every other surrounding elevation. Here it makes an abrupt angle, and diverging due south, shoots out into all those lateral branches which are spread over Asia Minor and Persia.

About forty versts from Gheorghievsk, are the celebrated warm sulphureous springs of Konstantinogorsk, "the Aix-la-Chapelle of Russia." They have their source in the hill called Mestchuca, a part of the Beshtau. Their temperature varies from 106° to 112° of Fahrenheit. They are much frequented by the Russians, even from distant parts of the empire. A few versts from this place at the foot of Beshtau, is a village of Friendly Circassians.* Dr. Lyall gives the following account of the visit which he paid to this village: "It was enclosed by a paling of basket-work, which, after alighting, we entered by a wicket. A number of women, miserably dressed, made their escape, but the children, almost in a state of nudity, remained for a few minutes to gaze at us. One black-eyed girl, of a very dark complexion, with a few tattered clothes on her, and with a naked child in her arms, reminded us of the savages of America and India. The *azdeen*, or noble, who was well dressed and very clean, conducted us past a number of wicker-work, clay-plastered houses, one of which had been blown down the preceding night; an occurrence which is very common, and which is greatly facilitated by

* "A number of Circassian families who dwell on the north side of the Caucasian line of defence, are called Friendly Circassians: though not actually subjects of Russia, they dare not pass the line without permission of the Russian Government."—Lyall, vol. i. p. 450.

the lightness of the materials of which they consist, and by each standing separate from the others. We were shewn into a small room, with a fire-place on one side, and a very low sofa with cushions on the other. The walls were hung, not with tapestry, but with woven straw, and covered with fire-arms, swords, and poniards. The noble wished to kill a sheep for our entertainment, but, as we refused to await its preparation, a small, low, round table, without table-cloth, knives, forks, or plates, was covered with millet boiled in milk, like pieces of pudding. In the centre was placed a wooden dish, containing pieces of new cheese, like curd, which had been toasted with butter and honey. At another table, his children and some other girls partook of the same fare, which they helped themselves to with their hands. They were all dressed in gaudy colours, and walked on high pattens. They were very fine girls, and most of them had beautiful features."

From Gheorghievsk, a rapid drive of 115 versts over level and excellent roads, brought our Traveller to Mozdok, situated upon the right bank of the Terek. This river, which divides European from Asiatic Russia, rises in the Caucasus, flowing first to the north, then north-west, and, about thirty versts from Mozdok, it turns to the east: as it approaches the Caspian, it divides into several streams, which re-unite before it falls into that sea. Mozdok is one of the largest towns in the south of Russia, and contains a population of about 5,000, chiefly Armenians, Georgians, and Circassians. The inhabitants are employed chiefly in the cultivation of the vine, the rearing of silk-worms, and in preparing a kind of spirit from grapes. There are also some morocco manufactories, and some trade is carried on with the mountaineers.

The houses are mean and gloomy, but they derive a cheerful aspect from the gardens with which, in the Asiatic taste, they are surrounded.

FROM MOZDOK TO TIFLIS.

In describing the route from this place across the Caucasus to Triflis, we shall avail ourselves of the Travels of Sir Robert Ker Porter in Georgia and Persia, in the years 1817 and 1820; Klaproth's Travels in Mount Caucasus and Georgia; and Letters from the Caucasus and Georgia; in addition to the work of Dr. Lyall.

The first important place in this route is Vladi-Kavkaz (Wlady Caucasus), one of the strongest military posts which the Russians possess along the foot of the Caucasus. It is the key to the celebrated defile of the Terek, (the *Pylæ Sarmaticæ*, *Porta Iberica*, or *Porta Caucasia* of ancient geography,) one of the passes through which the Medes, Sarmatians, and other oriental tribes, issued into the plains of northern Europe.* The Russians keep here a strong garrison. About twenty versts from this place, begins the first defile of this formidable pass: it is about four versts in length, and presents a wonderful combination of beautiful and sublime scenery. After passing through a second defile less striking than the first, the traveller arrives at the defile of Derial, where "the chasm rises from the river's brink to upwards of 1,000 feet: its sides broken into clefts and projections, dark and

* The other passage is that of Derbent, the *Pylæ Albaniæ* or *Via Caspia* of the ancients. The first syllable in this word, as well as Derial, the modern name of the Caucasian Gate, is said to signify gate or door.

frowning, so high, so close, so overhanging, that even at mid-day, the whole is covered with a shadow bordering on twilight." Near Derial, where the Russians have a small fortress, the Terek is crossed by a bridge. The highest point of this alpine pass is called the Mountain of the Cross, on which is a pedestal surmounted by a cross, bearing an inscription commemorating the completion by the Russians of the road through the *Porta Caucasia* in 1809. From this point, the route is easy, and for the most part through a beautiful country. Dr. Lyall was particularly struck with the valley of the Aragua, the Araxes of the ancients. "It is equal in length to that of Baidar in the Crimea, but far surpasses it in sublimity, if not in beauty." Along the banks of this river flourish lofty, wide-spreading beech-trees, hawthorns, honeysuckles, guelder-roses, and barberries, besides a variety of wild plants which grow in profusion among the woods. As the traveller approaches Passananoor, a palisadoed fortress, the valley becomes narrower. At Ananoor, the next post, all travellers who enter Georgia by this route, are required to perform quarantine. It is described as a detestable place, dirty and wretched in the extreme. Hither, however, as to a strong-hold, the females of the reigning family were formerly sent, whenever Tiflis was threatened with an attack from Persia or Turkey. The country in this part of Georgia, the ancient Iberia, presents the appearance of a rich soil, well cultivated with wheat, barley, and millet, and is enlivened by numerous villages. It forms the province of Kartelania. The same appearance of fertility continues as far as Msket, the ancient capital of Georgia, now a wretched village, described by Dr. Lyall in the following terms. "We entered the small village of Msket, now inhabited by Geor-

gians and Armenians, part of which we absolutely rode over; and, but for smoked holes serving as chimneys, in the flat earth-covered roofs of the houses, we should scarcely have distinguished them from the roads and lanes that wind among them. In many places, they are half under ground, and some of them are altogether subterranean. They are built in the sides of declivities, in other places, like the huts of the Crimean Tâtars; but they are not enlivened by the luxuriant foliage which gives a cheerful aspect to the latter. Indeed, they impressed us with the idea of poverty and wretchedness, and are by no means in harmony with the rich scenery of the valley in which they lie, or the mountains by which it is surrounded." Msket is situated on an angle formed by the junction of the Koor (Cyrus) and the Aragua, which, after passing by Tiflis, fall into the Caspian Sea. There still exist some striking remains of its ancient grandeur; in particular, the ruined palace of the czars of Georgia, some churches, and a castle.

Having now fairly passed the Caucasus, Dr. Lyall remarks, that the dangers and difficulties attending this much-dreaded route, are by no means so formidable as they have been represented by Sir R. K. Porter and some other travellers. Colonel Johnson, who travelled over-land from India to England, in 1817, has given, he says, a very correct description of the route. "The roads in general are good, and practicable even for wheel-carriages throughout. There is only one range of mountains to traverse, and the passage is by no means so arduous as that of almost all the *ghauts* in India, the declivities not being nearly so steep." The most formidable danger, inasmuch as it can neither be foreseen nor provided against, arises from the avalanches, and the immense masses of rocks

which sometimes detach themselves from the mountains, filling up the road, and even changing the course of the torrents. Two or three weeks after Dr. Lyall passed the defile of Derial, a projecting crag fell with a tremendous crash, and dammed up the Terek. To this "drawback" on the pleasure of the journey, must be added, however, the chance of being waylaid and made prisoner by the native banditti. "This horrid method of extorting money has subsisted among this people for upwards of forty years, and scarcely three months pass in which some passenger of note is not waylaid and captured."

The route from Msket to Tiflis leads for some time along the banks of the Koor, and then opens into the plain, at the extremity of which that city stands. Tiflis, when Chardin visited it 150 years ago, was a town of considerable size; but in 1795, it was destroyed by Mohammed Aga, since which, scarcely a third of it has been rebuilt. It is situated between the right bank of the Koor and a high mountain, in a narrow valley, in latitude 41° 43′ N. and longitude 44° 56′ E.; 2,627 versts (1,751 miles) from St. Petersburgh, and 1,900 versts (1,267 miles) from Moscow. Its population, consisting of Georgians, Armenians, Mingrelians, Persians, and Tâtars, is estimated at 30,000. It is surrounded with a wall, and divided into three parts,—the ancient town, the fortress, and the suburbs. Its general appearance is by no means imposing; and its interior is gloomy and dirty. "A miserable, gloomy town," are the words of Dr. Lyall, "by the side of a muddy river, surrounded by black, sterile hills, and parched corn-fields, in sultry weather, and enlivened only by a few exotic green trees, was not likely to produce any but melancholy impressions and the desire of a short residence. The climate,

though often fine, is unhealthy, and the heat so insupportable, that the inhabitants are glad to withdraw themselves to the hills at twenty or thirty versts' distance. During our abode at Tiflis, the temperature never exceeded 91° F.; but the air was indescribably sultry. At times, however, the thermometer, in the shade, rises to 38° R.—118° F. The streets, or rather I should say, the lanes of Tiflis are, for the most part, very narrow and irregular beyond description. Except in those places which have been rebuilt in the European style, there is not one which is straight. The houses, as well as their enclosing walls, are built of broad, flat bricks, often mixed with common stones, or forming alternate layers with them, and bound together with mud mixed with a little lime. Except in the best houses, there are no glazed windows. Common paper and oiled paper are here used as a substitute for glass, which is excessively dear, because there are no glass manufactories in Georgia. The doors opening into the courts, often answer the purpose of windows. The greater part of the town is excessively nasty. The Koor is dirty and often offensive; the public markets are dirty; many of the baths are filthy; and, in fact, in spite of all the Russian improvements, Tiflis seemed one of the meanest and most disagreeable towns I ever saw, but an excessively busy place.

"The *bazars*, though of late much improved, yet have no imposing appearance. The shops are arranged along a covered alley, which is a complete thoroughfare. Some of them are very dark, and all of them gloomy; but they are enlivened by the bustle and noise of crowds of people. The same kind of shops are mostly found together, as grocers, cap-makers, tailors, ironmongers, armourers, silversmiths, &c. In

the fruit-shops we found abundance of apricots, cherries, and mulberries of inferior quality, and different kinds of salad. The season was yet too early for the fine fruit of the climate; and during our stay at Tiflis, we never saw any upon the tables of the nobility. Every kind of merchandise and provisions is to be found here, as well the productions of the country, as of Persia and Russia. We saw carpets, silks, shawls, and other articles in the shops, which are not sold cheap in comparison with the prices in Russia. Immense quantities of Russian and German prints, handkerchiefs, besides cotton cloth, &c. of Russian manufacture, were every where exposed for sale.

"Two large ranges of new shops have been lately erected near General Yermólof's palace. Few of them were occupied, and, indeed, they were not all finished in 1822. We were rather surprised at finding an Englishman, who had just commenced business in one of them. But where can we go without meeting with our countrymen? This part of the town assumes an European aspect, but it still includes hundreds of Asiatic hovels, like terraces, in the sides of the hills, which, being extremely low, flat-roofed, and mean, are in many places scarcely visible until we are close upon them. About the middle of Tiflis, another irregular square is formed by the civil governor's house, the police-office, which was erected in 1820, the *Pravléniyé*, or the administration, and other edifices which belong to the crown. The part of the town which is far the best, is near General Yermolof's house; a structure which, though inferior to many private edifices in St. Petersburgh and Moscow, both in size and in style, yet, is thought extraordinary at Tiflis. Adjoining to it is the arsenal, and opposite it the *corps de garde*. On one side is the public garden,

which is of considerable size, and pretty well laid out. It contains a grotto, tea-rooms, and shaded walks and avenues, chiefly formed by vines. A pond, with *jets d'eau*, runs along its top, and the views from hence are extensive, and, in spring, are said to be pleasant. Behind it the hills rise rapidly, and are scattered with numerous churches."

The cathedral is very ancient; it is of considerable size, and handsome architecture. About two miles below the town, on the Koor, there is an hospital and botanic garden. The citadel, built by the Turks in 1576, occupies a commanding situation on a high, insulated hill, and has been a place of considerable strength.

The warm baths, from which the town derives its name,* are strongly impregnated with sulphuretted hydrogen; their temperature is from 100° to 112° Fahrenheit. Champooing is here a favourite operation. Georgians of rank, especially the ladies, devote a whole day in every week to the baths, and not unfrequently pass a night in them. Here, reclining on their couches, they have their hair and nails dyed black, and paint their faces red and white, torturing themselves to make the eyebrows join, which is deemed absolutely essential in a Georgian beauty. Within these few years, Crown baths have been erected, in which is found every accommodation necessary for a luxurious bath.

The name of Georgia, which formerly comprehended the states of Mingrelia and Imiretia, is now exclusively applied to the four provinces of Cartuel (or Cartelinia), Kaket (or Cakhetia), Kisik, and Georgian Armenia. Mount Caucasus bounds the district to the

* Properly, *Tflis-Kalaki*, or Tflissi, warm town.

north; on the north-west, a desert divides it from Imiretia; on the west and south, it is divided by mountains from the Turkish and Persian provinces of Akiska and Erivan; and on the east it is bounded by Daghestan and Shirvan. The climate, soil, and face of the country renders it one of the most beautiful and highly favoured regions in the world. The valleys, especially, are extremely fertile, producing cotton, rice, wheat, millet, hemp, and flax, with little labour or skill. The hills are clothed with the pine, the oak, the elm, the ash, the chetsnut, and the walnut-tree; and the vine grows wild, producing vast quantities of grapes. The country is well watered: the principal river is the Koor. From May to November, the weather is extremely fine; the air at all times is dry, but the winters are sometimes very cold, The Georgians are considered as the most numerous and powerful body of the mountaineers of Caucasus. Their manners and customs, in several respects, resemble those of the Persians. The nobility are numerous, and possess an unlimited power of life and death over the vassals. The women have long been celebrated for their beauty, and the market at Constantinople is suppled with female slaves from Georgia, as well as from Circassia. While it was an independent state, the prevalent religion was Christianity. In 1639, the Persian monarch, having conquered it, compelled the inhabitants to profess Islamism; but since the country has been subject to Russia, they have again avowed themselves Christians, following partly the rites of the Armenian, but chiefly those of the Greek Church.

Georgia was subject to the ancient Persians till the time of Alexander the Great. On his death, it seems to have become an independent kingdom, but was constantly liable to the inroads of the Turks and the Per-

sians, till, in 1576, it was divided between them, though a nominal sovereign still remained to the Georgians. In 1586, this sovereign implored the assistance of the Russians, who built a town upon the Terek. Georgia, however, still continued to be exposed to devastation from the Turks and the Persians; and in 1735, it was entirely subdued by the latter power. In 1783, Prince Heraclius, the son of the viceroy of Georgia, ceded two of its provinces on which he had seized, to Russia; but, in 1787, he was obliged to renounce his connexion with Russia, and to acknowledge himself tributary to the Porte. At the peace between Russia and the Porte, in 1791, the Georgians were declared independent. Four years afterwards, Tiflis was ravaged and burned by the Khan of Persia. On the death of Heraclius, in 1798, his sons quarrelled, and the eldest submitted himself and his people to the Emperor Paul. Since that period, it has become a province of the Russian empire. The present chief towns, besides Tiflis and Annanoor, already described, are Gori, a small place; Telav, equally mean; and Signag, which contains only about 300 inhabitants. The total population of Georgia is estimated at 371,200; a fourth part of which are Armenians.

The military line of defence on the north of the Caucasus, formed by the Russians, extending from Taman on the Black Sea, to the shores of the Caspian, is nearly 1,000 versts (667 miles) in length. It is composed of fortresses and redoubts, which prevent all communication between Asia and Europe, except to those who have regular passports. The southern line of defence of the Caucasus runs from Suhum-kale on the Black Sea, to Baku on the Caspian, and is equally well protected. From Baku to Derbent and Kislar, by the western shores of the Caspian, another line of defence is formed. Thus, the range of the Caucasus

is completely surrounded with fortresses, except on that part by the eastern border of the Black Sea, between Suhum-kale and Anapa.

Among the numerous mountain tribes of the Caucasus, next to the Georgians, the most remarkable are the Ossetinians, who differ from all the rest in language and features. Blue eyes, and fair or red hair, are very common among them. The men are strong, well-made, and of middle stature; the women small and far from handsome, their faces being round, and their noses flat. Like all the other tribes of the Caucasus, they are greatly addicted to plunder and assassination: their dress and arms resemble those of the Circassians. Like all rude tribes, they are hospitable: a stranger, while in their villages, is certain of good treatment; but if he leave without an escort, he most probably will be plundered by the very man whose hospitality he had shared the preceding evening. Their religion is a singular mixture of Christianity, Mohammedism, and ancient superstitions. Their oaths are singular: when one of them is accused of theft, he generally swears by a dog, a cat, or by the dead. "The accused with a dog, runs through the village, crying with a loud voice, 'I am about to kill this dog.' After which, the real thief generally avows his fault, because it is believed, that to be accessary to the death of a dog would lead to misfortune. It often happens, that he who takes an oath, cuts off the head of a cat, or hangs a dog, saying, that the animal will avenge itself of the perjured person, by scratching, biting, and tormenting the guilty. Whoever suspects one of his neighbours to have stolen, conducts him to the place where his relations are interred, when the accused, placing himself near the tomb of his father, mother, or brother, cries out, 'If I have stolen, I

wish to serve as a horse in the other world, to my father, my mother, or my brother; but if I am innocent, may that punishment fall upon the guilty.' When an Ossetinian dies, all his relations assemble. The men uncover the head and the hips, and lash themselves till blood appears; and the women scratch their faces, bite their arms, and cry in a dreadful manner. The wife of the deceased ought to be more violent than the rest, and to abstain for a year from all kinds of meat and other things prohibited during the fast. Generally, her husband's brother espouses her, even when he has another wife, with a view of preserving the property in the family. Every family has its own sepulchre, which, among some tribes, is an immense square building, with a very narrow entrance. Two men enter it, drawing after them the body of the deceased, stretched upon planks. When it is entirely consumed, they mix the bones with those of others of the family." *

In the middle of the sixteenth century, the Czar Ivan II. conquered the Great and Little Kabarda, on the northern frontiers of the Caucasus, districts inhabited by one of the most numerous and interesting of the Circassian tribes. Their connexion with Russia, therefore, as well as the celebrity of their name, entitles them to a brief notice in this place.

The origin of the Circassians is involved in much uncertainty. The Don Cossacks, who are evidently referrible to the same family, call them *Tcherkas*, or *Tcherkessi*, of which the word Circassian is obviously a corruption; and the same word, under a slight vari-

* Many of these observations, which are taken from "*Voyage au Caucase et en Georgie*," (tom. ii. p. 223,) are, in the opinion of Dr. Lyall, as applicable to a number of the other tribes of the Caucasus, as to the Ossetinians.

ation, has given name to the town of Tcherkasky, *i. e.* the village of the Tcherkas, or Circassians. The original country of the Cossacks is said to have been called Chazakia, and to have been a part of Circassia. "The Circassians of the present day," says Dr. Clarke, "are a horde of banditti, inhabiting the region whence the Cossacks originally descended. Continually repelled from their ancient boundary, the Tanais and Lake Mæotis, and ultimately driven beyond the Kuban and the Terek, they hang upon the northern sides of Caucasus, or carry on predatory incursions from the swampy plains at its feet, about 200 miles above Tcherkask." They are almost always engaged in war with the Cossacks, and the petty princes are continually at war with one another. Pallas says, that the Circassian bears no affinity to any other language, and that, according to report, the *uzdens*, or nobles, speak a dialect unknown to the common people. The fact is, that the languages of Caucasus are as various as the principalities, and have little or no apparent affinity.* Of all the Circassian tribes, the Lesgians, inhabiting the mountains of Daghestan, ranging nearly parallel to the western coast of the Caspian, bear the

* "The languages referred to the Caucasian order have little more in common than their geographical situation in the immediate neighbourhood of the Caucasian mountains. Except the Armenian and the Georgian, they are scarcely even employed in writing; and principally, perhaps, from this cause, they exhibit as great a diversity in the space of a few square miles, as those of many other nations do in as many thousands. The Abassic nations (or *Absne*) seem to be old inhabitants of the Caucasian country; the Circassians are situated to the east of them, on the promontory of north Caucasus; the Ossetes on the left of the Terek, north of the mountains. The *Kistic*, spoken by the Ingushans and their neighbours at the head of the Terek, is connected with the Tushetan Georgians. The Lesgians, east of Caucasus, on the Caspian Sea, have a number of distinct dialects, or rather languages. Thus,

worst reputation. "Their very name excites terror among the neighbouring principalities, and it is used as a term of reproach by many of the natives of Caucasus." The most interesting branch of the Circassian nation are the Cabardians, or Kabardines, who inhabit the frontiers of the Caucasus. This tribe, Pallas says, "consider themselves as descendants of the Arabs; and it is not improbable," he adds, "that they are the remains of those armies which were formerly sent to the Caucasus by the Khalifs: according to others, they are the descendants of the Mamelukes.* It is confirmed by general tradition, that they formerly inhabited the Crimea. The upper part of the River Belbik, in the Crimea, is to this day called Kabarda; and the whole of that beautiful country situate between the Kabarda and the Kastcha, continues to be termed by the Tâtars, *Tsherkestus*. The name of this people seems also to have been preserved in their mountainous fort, called *Tsherkes-Kermen*, the ruins of which are still discoverable. At what period they extended their habitations along the banks of the Kuban, and in the country of the Beshtau, cannot easily be determined. They call themselves, like all the families of the Circassians, by the general name of *Adigees;* perhaps they are the *Cercetæ* of Strabo." "About sixty years ago," adds the learned Traveller, "these people professed the Christian religion; but since that time

the *Chunsag*, the *Dido*, the *Kasi-Kumuk*, the *Andi*, and the *Akusha*, have little or no connexion with each other."—See *Quart. Rev.*, vol. x. p. 285, (Art. *Adelung's Mithridates).* Also Mod. Trav., *Mexico*, vol. i. pp. 191—3.

* It is a coincidence worth noticing, that the tribe occupying the country at the foot of Mount Kashkatau, are governed by the *Dshambulat* or (*Djambelat*) family; and one of the principal Druse families bears the name of *Djonbelat*.—See Mod. Trav., *Syria*, vol. i. p. 89.

they have become indifferent and ignorant Mohammedans." Islam Abaziwan, a Cabardian nobleman, told Mr. Glen, that their ancestors in Cabardia were Christians, and he frankly avowed that the manners of his countrymen were then less depraved. "Then," he said, "a man's bare word could be depended upon; now, the most solemn engagements and promises are disregarded." The recent date of this adoption of Islamism is not a little remarkable, and somewhat at variance with the tradition respecting their Arabian descent.* The most populous, powerful, wealthy, and cleanly of all the Circassian tribes, are the Temirgoi, who border with the Mukoshians, near the rivulet

* From this Cabardian, Mr. Glen obtained the following particulars respecting the mountain tribes in the vicinity of Karass. "On the north side of Elborz, the Kuban takes its rise, the banks of which, near its source, are peopled by the Caratchai, a Tâtar tribe. The number of families, according to Islam, is about 300, and, like the Cabardians, they are Mahommedans, Beyond the Caratchai, on the south-west line, live the Hashipsi, or, as the Cabardians name them, Abazas, who speak a language of their own, differing from the Tâtar, the Cabardian, and that of the neighbouring tribes. They, too, are the followers of Mohammed. The rivulets by which their country is watered, run towards the Black Sea. At a still greater distance is another people, named the Somnas, who, like the Abazas, have a language of their own, which bears no resemblance to any which the Cabardians have had an opportunity of hearing. They call themselves Christians, and their books, or rather those of their forefathers, which none of them can read, are lodged in their churches, which are falling into decay. Of this people there are three tribes, one of which is only about thirty versts from the Abazas. The other two tribes are distant from the Abazas about two days' journey on the other side of the mountain. Between the Abazas and Georgia, the mountains are impassable for persons on horseback, but may be crossed, though not without difficulty, by a few active young men on foot. On the north-east of Elborz, the Shegim river takes its rise, directing its course to the Caspian. On the banks of it, to a considerable distance from its source, live the Shegims. The number of families belonging to this tribe, is from two to three hundred. They

Arim, which falls into the Bulansu, and extend to the Psega, which falls into the Shaukesha, a tributary of the Kuban: they are frequently at war with their neighbours, the Abassine tribes of Tubi and Ubikh.

Pallas describes the Circassians as representing "a species of knights, who observe a complete feudal system among themselves, as well as towards their subjects, not unlike that formerly exercised, though with still greater severity and cruelty, by the German knights of Prussia and Livonia. Considering the subject in this point of view," he remarks, "and admitting that the princes and nobility alone constitute the nation; that their subjects almost uniformly are the slaves of other nations subjugated by war, who, by adopting the language of their conquerors, have been treated with lenity; and that a free and gallant race of knights will not bear a foreign yoke without great reluctance; we shall then be enabled to judge with more candour and impartiality of their aristocratic constitution, as well as of their continual wars and revolts, not only against their former Khans of the Crimea, but also against their present masters. It is a fortunate circumstance, that their intestine feuds, and the divided power of this heroic people among a

profess the Mohammedan religion, and speak a dialect of the Tâtar language. Further down, however, the banks of the Shegim are peopled by the Cabardians, whose border, on the south, extends from the Caratchai country, along the bottom of the snow mountains, as far as the eye can reach. Their northern frontier, in the neighbourhood of Beshtau, is the Podcuma, a few versts distant from the spot on which we took our observations. West of the Abazas, the mountains are inhabited by various tribes, the greater part of which speak dialects of the Cabardian, Abaza, and Tâtar languages. East of the Shegims, they are inhabited by tribes speaking dialects of a great many different languages, of which the most noted are the Tchitchian and Ossetinian; but of these and other eastern tribes, his information was not so minute."

number of contending petty princes, renders them less dangerous. Indeed, it were to be wished that they could be converted into good subjects, and somewhat more habituated to an orderly life, without curbing their bravery and heroic spirit. If such measures were adopted, we may confidently assert, that their light cavalry would form the most determined and dreaded body of troops that ever appeared in a field of battle."

Dr. Clarke says: "Examples of heroism may be observed among them which would have dignified the character of the Romans in the most virtuous periods of their history. Among the prisoners in the Cossack army, we saw one of the Circassians who had performed feats of valour, perhaps unparalleled. The commander-in-chief, General Drascovitz, maintained, that in all the campaigns he had served, whether against Turks or the more disciplined armies of Europe, he had never witnessed instances of greater bravery than he had seen among the Circassians. The troops of other nations, when surrounded by superior numbers, readily yield themselves prisoners of war; but the Circassian, while a spark of life remains, will continue to combat, even with a multitude of enemies. We saw a Circassian chief in the prison at Ekaterinedara, about thirty-five years of age, who had received fifteen desperate wounds before he fell, and was made prisoner, having fainted from loss of blood. This account was given to us by his bitterest enemies, and may therefore surely be trusted. He was first attacked by three of the Cossack cavalry. It was their object to take him alive if possible, on account of his high rank and the consideration in which he was held by his own countrymen. Every endeavour was therefore used to attack him in such a manner as not to endanger his life. This intention

was soon perceived by the Circassian, who determined not to surrender. With his single sabre, he shivered their three lances at the first onset, and afterwards wounded two of the three assailants. At length, surrounded by others who came to their assistance, he fell, covered with wounds, in the midst of his enemies, fighting to the last moment. We visited him in his prison, where he lay stretched upon a plank, bearing the anguish of his terrible wounds without a groan. They had recently extracted the iron point of a lance from his side. A young Circassian girl was employed in driving flies from his face with a green bough. All our expressions of concern and regard were lost upon him: we offered him money, but he refused to accept of it, handing it to his fellow-prisoners, as if totally ignorant of its use. In the same place of confinement stood a Circassian female, about twenty years of age, with fine light brown hair, extremely beautiful, but pale and hardly able to support herself, through grief and weakness. The Cossack officers stated, that when they captured this woman, she was in excellent health; but that ever since, owing to her separation from her husband, she had refused all offer of food; and, as she pined daily, they feared she would die. It may be supposed, we spared no entreaty with the commander-in-chief for the release of these prisoners. Before the treaty of peace, they had been offered to the highest bidder, the women selling generally from twenty-five to thirty rubles a-piece, somewhat less than the price of a horse. But we were told, it was now too late, as they were included in the list for exchange, and must therefore remain until the Cossacks, who were prisoners in Circassia, were delivered up. The poor woman in all probability did not live to see her husband or her country again.

Another Circassian female, fourteen years of age, who was also in confinement, hearing of the intended exchange of prisoners, expressed her wishes to remain where she was. Conscious of her great beauty, she feared her parents would sell her, according to the custom of the country, and that she might fall to the lot of masters less humane than the Cossacks. The Circassians frequently sell their children to strangers, particularly to Persians and Turks. Their princes supply the Turkish seraglios with the most beautiful of the prisoners of both sexes captured in war."

In their amusements, the youth of both sexes converse freely with each other, as the Circassian women in general are neither confined nor reserved. In their courtships, however, the strictest attention is paid to the rank of the parties; and no noble dares court the daughter of a prince. Among the higher orders, some very singular domestic customs prevail, which are detailed by Pallas, bearing a striking analogy to those which Strabo relates of the Gargarenses and Amazons. Their female offspring are nourished in the most sparing manner, that they may acquire a slender and elegant form. The Circassian girls generally, between the tenth and twelfth years of their age, are invested with a broad girdle of untanned leather, tightly sewed round the waist, which they are obliged to wear till they marry: it is the office of the bridegroom, to cut this "girdle of chastity" with his dagger. Over the chemise is worn a laced jacket, with a petticoat, open in front, and reaching to the ancles, to which, in the married women, are added wide drawers. The head-dress is a cap, nearly resembling that worn by the men. Wooden clogs are worn on leaving the house, and mittens on the hands. Painting the face is considered as an indication of want of chastity;

but the girls are permitted to die their nails with *kna*. The women are not uniformly Circassian beauties; but are for the most part well-formed, with a white skin, dark brown or black hair, and regular features. The men, especially those of the higher class, are mostly tall, very slender about the loins, with small feet, but strong and muscular, and have a very martial appearance. Their dress, in some respects, resembles that of the Tâtars, but is more elegant. On the head, which is shorn in the Polish fashion, is worn an embroidered cap, quilted with cotton, in the form of a melon. The whiskers are suffered to grow, as is common among the Poles: the priests let the whole beard grow, and wear a deep red turban and scarlet breeches. Persons of distinction have the seams of their upper garments bound with small lace or embroidery, which the women very skilfully manufacture of gold or silver threads. When a prince or noble pays a visit in full dress, he generally puts on his jacket of mail. These coats of mail are manufactured of polished steel rings, and are imported from Persia and Kubesha. The helmet and arm-plates are of polished steel. Persons of rank never leave the house without a sabre; and they generally have their breast-pockets supplied with ball-cartridges. A Circassian noble, mounted and in complete armour, is a most picturesque and imposing figure.

The two opposite customary laws, those of hospitality and revenge, are sacredly observed among the Circassian knights, as well as among most of the Caucasian tribes. Music and dancing are favourite amusements among them. The peasants not only cultivate millet, maize, and vegetables, but have numerous herds and flocks of goats and sheep, horned cattle and horses; rear poultry of all descriptions, and bestow considerable

attention on their bees. Mead is their favourite beverage: besides which, they are very fond of a sort of beer made of millet, which is called *busa*. The most important object of attention among the *uzdens*, is the rearing of fine horses, in which they are as particular as the Arabs themselves.

In their villages and houses, as well as in their food and dress, Pallas says, the Circassians are extremely clean. Their houses are slightly built of close wicker work, plastered with clay, and roofed with slight rafters, covered with strong grass: they have a chimney and fire-place. They are built contiguous to each other, in squares or circles, so that the inner space serves as a common cattle-yard: the residence of the *uzden*, however, is generally detached. Their principal tombs are of an oblong form, built of hewn stones; and some of the sepulchres of the princes are handsome edifices.

Such are the leading particulars of the description furnished by Pallas of the Circassians of Kabarda. In some respects, the account he gives, is not quite consistent with itself; and there is reason to suspect, that the differing manners and customs of distinct tribes are not sufficiently discriminated. There is also, perhaps, a little that is fanciful in the description of these free and gallant Circassian knights, the feudal barons of Caucasus. Much remains to be ascertained, and almost every thing requires to be verified, relating to these mountain tribes: they will in all probability, be found to have descended from refugees of various nations,—Greek, Arab, Persian, Tâtar, and Polish, who have, at different periods, fought out for themselves a shelter in these almost inaccessible regions.

We have now traced two of the principal rivers that

water the southern provinces of Russia, along nearly the whole of their respective courses, till they fall, the Don into the Sea of Azof, and the Dnieper into the Euxine; and have described the districts through which they flow, as well as those which lie between the Turkish and the Persian frontiers of Russia, the Crimea, Cuban Tartary, the Caucasus, and Georgia. One other principal river remains to be noticed, by tracing the course of which till it falls into the Caspian, we shall complete our survey of the central and southern provinces of this immense empire. It will then only remain to trace the routes from Moscow to its eastern limits.

FROM MOSCOW TO ASTRAKAN.

Our principal guide in describing the route from Moscow to Astrakan, where the Volga falls into the Caspian, will be Mr. Bell, who travelled with the Russian embassies to Persia and China, in the year 1715, and enjoyed the best opportunities for observation and inquiry. Mr. Bell embarked on the Moskva, which, about three versts below the episcopal city of Kolomna, enters the Oka. This is a fortified place, and the capital of the district. It stands on the right bank of the Moskva, and is traversed by a small stream, called the Kolomenka, which here falls into it. It is 100 versts from Moscow. It is tolerably well built, and contains eighteen churches, a monastery, a nunnery, and between 5 and 6,000 inhabitants. Its principle trade is in cattle; there are also linen, silk, and cotton manufactories here, and considerable tile-kilns. Six days after entering the Oka, Mr. Bell arrived at Riazan (or Rezan), an archiepiscopal city, which formerly bore the name of Pereaslavl Riazan-

skoi,* distant 191 versts from Moscow: it stands on the Trubesh, near its confluence with the Oka. The village of Starai Riazan (old Riazan), which stands on the banks of the Oka, about fifty versts from the modern town, occupies the site of a large and powerful city, the capital of an independent dutchy of the same name. It was destroyed in 1568, by the Tâtars. Riazan is an inconsiderable place, containing a population of about 6,000 souls. The next place of interest is Kassimof Czarevitz, formerly the residence of a Tâtar prince, from whom it takes its name: it was anciently called Gorodetz. It stands on a calcareous mountain, which here forms the left bank of the Oka, where the river is 100 fathoms in breadth, 140 versts from Rezan. It is a place of some trade, but the houses are of wood; the population, which is partly Tâtar, is under 5,000. The Oka now leaving the government of Rezan, enters that of Vladimir, and flows by the episcopal city of Mourum, situated on an elevation. This place is of high antiquity, being the seat of a Sarmatian colony at a period antecedent to the Russian annals; and was anciently an appanage of the younger sons of the princes of Kiev. Being a frontier town, it repeatedly suffered from the incursions of the Bulgarians. The town has its kremlin, or citadel; and contains a handsome cathedral, seventeen churches, two monasteries, a nunnery, and about 4,500 inhabitants. About twenty-five versts from Mourum, on the east bank of the river, are found rich iron mines; and sixty versts below the city, begins a

* So called to distinguish it from the ancient Pereaslavl in the Ukraine, situated on the Dnieper. The name Perea-Slavl was assumed by Oleg, a Tâtar invader, in the tenth century, to commemorate his conquests.

vein of alabaster, which extends to Nishnei-Novogorod. This latter city, the capital of a government to which it gives name, is situated on the high banks of the Oka, opposite to where it loses itself in the Volga. It stands in lat. 56° 16′ N., long. 44° 18′ E.; 1,120 versts from St. Petersburgh, and 390 from Moscow. Its situation at the confluence of two of the principal rivers of Central Russia, is extremely well adapted for commerce; and the largest portion of the internal trade of the empire centres here. It communicates at once with the provinces of the north, with the Baltic, and with Moscow. The produce of Siberia, of the Ural Mountains, and of China, is brought to it by means of the Kama, which joins the Volga near Kazan. By the Lower Volga and caravans is brought the produce of Central Asia and of South-eastern Russia and Persia; and it is supplied with European commodities from Moscow, St. Petersburgh, and Odessa. The great and obvious advantages of its situation, it is said, once suggested to Peter the Great the idea of making it the capital of the Russian empire. Its commercial importance has lately been much increased by the removal to it of the great annual fair which used to be held at Makarief, eighty-four versts distant. This fair is well known over Europe; it generally lasts from six weeks to two months. Bazars have been erected for the accommodation of those who attend this fair, which, according to Dr. Lyall, form the finest establishment of the kind in the world. The sale of iron and iron articles usually amounts to above 10,000,000 rubles; the furs to 36,000,000; the images to 1,300,000. Captain Cochrane is of opinion, that "the fair, in point of value, is second to none in Europe; the business done being estimated at nearly 200,000,000 rubles." The population of the place is

supposed then to amount to 120, or even 150,000; among whom may be seen Chinese, Persians, Circassians, Armenians, Tâtars, Bucharians, Jews, and a "specimen of almost every European nation." Nor are theatrical exhibitions, shows of wild beasts, and other Bartholomew-fair amusements wanting, to add to the attractions of the scene. The fixed population is estimated at between 15 and 16,000, Russians and Tâtars. The upper part of the city, "though surrounded with the stubborn remains of the old citadel (the kremlin) and Tâtar wall," is, according to Captain Cochrane's account, peculiarly pleasant and airy. The lower town, occupied chiefly by the traders, consists of one very long street near the river. The suburbs are execrably filthy. There is an elegant bridge on pontoons across the Oka. The Kremlin contains two cathedrals; besides which, there are in other parts of the town, three convents and twenty-six churches, a public seminary, and a school. The resident population are chiefly engaged in commerce; but there are distilleries, breweries, tanneries, soap-works, and other manufactories. It is the residence of an archbishop.

Captain Cochrane *walked* from Moscow to Nishnei. The first day, passing through several small villages, he reached "Bouncova, lying in a well-cultivated and picturesque country;" a distance of twenty-five miles. The next place he came to was Vladimir, a fine city, on the left banks of the Kliasma, once the capital of all Ducal Russia, and now the head town of a small government, and seat of an archbishop. It stands in lat. 56° 2′ 15″ N., and is reckoned 902 versts from St. Petersburgh, and 175 from Moscow; but, according to Captain Cochrane's calculation, it cannot be so far from the latter city. Its situation, he says, "is beautiful, standing on a considerable eminence, which

overhangs the river, and commands a fine view of the surrounding country. There are still remaining, many traces of its former greatness, such as the royal palace and gardens, a range of public offices, and several handsome churches." Like all the ancient towns of Russia, it has its kremlin. The population is estimated at between 4 and 5,000, who carry on some trade, manufacture linen, and cultivate their garden-grounds and orchards, famous for their cherries, immense quantities of which are sent to Moscow. Being on the high road to the fair of Nishnei, as well as in the line of communication with Siberia, this place is a great thoroughfare, and often presents a very busy scene.

From Vladimir, our Pedestrian proceeded through Soudogda and Morshok to Dratchevo, where he obtained a lift in a vehicle to Mourum. There, hiring a canoe, he paddled across the Oka, and passed through a dreary, marshy country to Manacovo. A prettier country, well wooded, extends to Pogost, distant, according to our Traveller's calculation, forty miles from Mourum. This town is not ill built, and has an annual fair. A walk of fourteen miles over a cross road, through the beautiful valley of the Oka, the next morning, brought him to the iron-works of Pavlovo, "the Birmingham of Russia." On the evening of the following day, he reached Nishnei, where he embarked on the Volga in a lighter bound to Kazan.

Makarief, a straggling, ill-built place, is the first inhabited spot on the left bank of the Volga, after leaving Nishnei; and beyond it, the country on that side is a universal waste. On the right bank, the voyager passes Vasili-sourski, Kosmodemiarski, Tche-

baksar,* and Siviatski. At the latter place is the remnant of an old stone castle: it is thirty-two versts from Kazan.

This city, inferior only to the capitals, is situated on the small river Kazanka, about four versts from where it falls into the Volga: it is 735 versts from Moscow by land, but much more by water. It stands in lat. 55° 47′ 51″ N., long. 49° 21′ 9″ E. The city was nearly destroyed by fire about six years ago; but it has been in a great measure rebuilt in a more substantial and regular manner. It is the see of an archbishop, and the seat of a university. Its population is estimated at 40,000, of whom 12,000 are Tâtars, who dwell in the suburbs. The Kazan Tâtars are said to be a more civilised people than their Russian masters. "The Tatar who is unable to read and write, is held in very little estimation by his countrymen; and hence, it is a leading consideration with the fathers of families to send their children to school at an early age, with a view to their being instructed in reading, writing, and the principles of religion. To promote

* "In this country," says Mr. Bell, "are caught the best and largest falcons in the world, much esteemed for their strength and beauty, particularly by the Turks and Persians, who purchase them very dear. The Russians take few young hawks from the nest, preferring the old ones, which they train very dexterously to fly at swan, goose, crane, or heron. The Tâtars fly them at antelopes and hares. I have seen them take a wild-duck out of the water, when nothing of her could be perceived but the bill, which she was obliged to put up for air. Some of them are as white as a dove. The manner of catching them is very simple: they erect a tall pole upon a hill, free from wood, on a bank of the river, near which is placed a jay-net; under the net some small birds are fastened by a cord, which the hawk-catcher pulls to make them flutter on the appearance of the hawk, who, observing his prey, first perches on the pole; and when he stoops to seize the bird, the person who is concealed by the bushes, draws the net and covers him."

these objects, every mosque has its proper school attached to it. Many of the Tâtar merchants of Kazan are very rich, nearly the whole trade being in their hands. The chief articles are soap, leather, potash, skins, wax, tallow, and gunpowder.

Kazan, on approaching it from the westward, Capt. Cochrane says, greatly resembles Badajos as approached from Elvas. It is built partly on a declivity, partly on a swampy plain, which is subject to annual inundation. These marshes render the place in dry weather very unhealthy. There was formerly a cathedral on the site of the ancient mosque, as also a palace, both of which were destroyed by an explosion in the citadel at the time of the fire. It has several handsome churches, four convents, one Lutheran church, and several mosques. "Among the churches is one which gave rise to that beautiful building, the Kazan church at St. Petersburgh, though its architecture would seem to denote a theatre." The province of Kazan is extensive, well wooded and fertile, but low and insalubrious: it sends great quantities of corn to the capital. The woods to the south and west consist of stately oaks, "sufficient to supply all the navies in the world." They abound with game. The population is estimated at 900,000. Above half are peasants or slaves; four-fifths of whom belong to the crown, the rest to the nobles.

Mr. Bell was obliged to remain at Kazan during the winter, the Volga having been filled with floating ice early in September. In the following May, the river was still so high and rapid, that it was reckoned dangerous to proceed. At last, on the 4th of June, he embarked; on the 25th, he landed at Saratof, a large town about 850 versts from Kazan. There he had an opportunity of visiting a great horse-market held on

the opposite side of the river, by the Calmuck Tâtars. About 5 or 600 of these people were assembled in a field, with a number of horses all running loose, except those on which the Tâtars were mounted. The buyers come from various parts of Russia. "The Tâtars had their tents pitched along the river side. These tents are of a conical figure: several long poles are erected, inclining to one another, which are fixed at the top into something like a hoop, that forms the circumference of an aperture for letting out the smoke or admitting the light. Across the poles are laid some small rods from four to six feet long, and fastened to them with thongs. This frame is covered with pieces of felt, made of coarse wool and hair. These tents afford better shelter than any other kind; and are so contrived as to be set up, taken down, folded and packed up with great ease and quickness, and are so light, that a camel may carry five or six of them. Where the khan or any person of distinction resides, they are placed in right lines.

"These Tâtars," continues Mr. Bell, "were strongly made and stout, their faces broad, noses flattish, and eyes small and black but very quick. Their dress is very simple, consisting of a loose coat of sheepskin tied with a girdle; a small round cap, turned up with fur, having a tassel of silk at the top; leather or linen drawers, and boots. Their heads are all shaved, except a lock behind, which is plaited and hangs down the back. They are armed with a bow and arrows, a sabre, and a lance, which they manage with great dexterity, acquired by constant practice from their infancy. They are men of courage and resolution, but much afraid of cannon, which puts their horses in disorder. As they are almost always on horseback, they are excellent riders. The dress of the women

differs little from that of the men; only their gowns are somewhat longer than the coats of the men, a little ornamented, and bordered with party-coloured cloth. They wear earrings, and their hair all plaited in locks. The better sort dress in silks in summer. It must be observed, for the honour of the women, that they are very honest and sincere. Adultery is a crime scarcely ever heard of. The Tâtars make very good and faithful servants; and the more mildly they are used, the more faithfully they perform their duty: for their wandering, unconfined manner of life naturally inspires them with sentiments of liberty, and an aversion and hatred to tyranny and oppression. All their wealth is in their flocks. Like those who lived in the early ages of the world, they have camels, horses, cows, and sheep. The horses are of a good size for the saddle, and very hardy: as they run wild till they are sometimes six years old they are generally headstrong. They are sold, at this fair, at from five to sixteen crowns, and the strong, well-shaped, natural pacers, much higher. Their cows are of a middle size; the sheep large, having broad tails like those in Turkey: the wool is coarse, but the mutton very fine.

"They have no money, except what they get from the Russians and their other neighbours, in exchange for cattle. With this, they buy meat sometimes, but mostly cloth, silk stuffs, and other apparel, for their women. They have no mechanics, except those wh make arms. They avoid all labour as the greatest slavery: their only employment is tending their flocks, managing their horses, and hunting. If they are angry with a person, they wish he may live in one place, and work like a Russian. On long marches, all their provisions consist of cheese, or rather, dried curd, made up into little balls, which they drink when

pounded and mixed with water. If this kind of food fails, they have always many spare horses, which they kill and eat. They broil or roast the flesh before the fire, on pieces of broken arrows, and never eat it raw, as is commonly believed, unless in cases of necessity. They have, indeed, large thick pieces of horse-flesh, smoked or dried in the sun, which they eat; but this cannot properly be called raw. I have tasted some of it, and thought it not amiss. As to their religion, I can say little: they are downright heathens, and have many lamas or priests who can read and write, and are distinguished by their yellow habits. Their high priest is called *Delay Lama*, and lives far to the eastward."

So far Mr. Bell. From Dr. Clarke, Pallas, and other travellers, a few particulars may be added, respecting this primitive race. They are believed to be the only nation that has retained the ancient language of the Moguls, who, under Jhengis Khan, in the thirteenth century, subdued the finest districts of Asia. They have also, in a great measure, preserved the manners, dress, and religion of their ancestors. Their original territories were very extensive, stretching along the southern boundaries of Siberia as far as the Selenga on the east, and skirting the empire of China, they reached, on the south, towards the confines of Ava. On the north-west, they were bounded by the Mogul empire, Great Bucharia, and Turkestan. Such was their territory so lately as the beginning of the last century; but the encroachments of the Russians and Chinese have greatly contracted it. At present, they are scattered over various and very distant parts of central and south-western Asia. The most numerous and powerful tribes inhabit the country between the Caspian, Samarcand, and Cashgar. Both

banks of the Volga, as well as both sides of the Don and the Ural, are also the haunts of this race. Mr. Bell has well described their very peculiar physiognomy, which distinguishes them from all the other nations of Asia; it is, indeed, very forbidding, but those who possess the national features in the highest degree, are, among them, regarded as the most beautiful. Their hospitable disposition is attested by all travellers. Their disgusting habits are thus strongly painted by Dr. Clarke. "Within the tent we found some women, though it was difficult to distinguish the sexes, so horrid and inhuman was their appearance. The old women were eating raw horse-flesh, tearing it off from large bones, which they held in their hands." They are by no means courageous. They are expert at some kinds of manufactures, especially inlaid work and enamelling; and Dr. Clarke and other travellers assure us, that, from time immemorial, they have possessed the art of making gunpowder. This Traveller, as well as most others who have seen them, represents their food as much more loathsome than Mr. Bell seems to have imagined, consisting of cattle and horses who have died of disease, dogs, cats, marmots, rats; and the poorer sort sometimes feed upon carrion. Their favourite dish, during a journey, is a piece of flesh placed under the saddle of a horse, which, by warmth and pressure, becomes a tender steak. The preparation of *koumis*, or rather, of a sort of rack made from it, is thus described by Dr. Clarke: "Their still was constructed of mud, or very coarse clay; and for the neck of the retort, they employed a cane. The receiver of the still was entirely covered with a coat of wet clay. The brandy had already passed over. The woman who had the management of the distillery, wishing to give us a taste of the spirit, thrust a stick,

with a small tuft of camel's hair at its end, through the external covering of the clay; and thus, collecting a small quantity of the brandy, she received it into the palm of her dirty and greasy hand, and having tasted the liquor, presented it to our lips." They are so fond of being on horseback, that the ceremony of marriage is sometimes performed in this manner. "A girl is first mounted," Dr. Lyall informs us, "who rides off at full speed. Her lover pursues, and if he overtakes her, she becomes his wife, and the marriage is consummated upon the spot; after which, she returns with him to his tent. But it sometimes happens, that the woman does not wish to marry the person by whom she is pursued, in which case she will not suffer him to overtake her; and we were assured, that no instance occurs of a Calmuck girl being thus caught, unless she had a partiality for her pursuer. If she dislikes him, she rides, to use the language of English sportsmen, 'neck or nothing,' until she has completely escaped, or until the pursuer's horse is tired out, leaving her at liberty to return, to be afterwards chased by some more favourite admirer." The majority of the Calmucks profess the religion of Thibet. They have two written characters; one very ancient and sacred, read from left to right; the other, used in common concerns, is read from top to bottom.

From Saratof, Mr. Bell descended the Volga to Astrakan, passing the place where Captain Parry, an Englishman in great favour with Peter the Great, was employed in attempting to cut a canal between the Volga and the Don: the attempt, however, did not succeed. On the island of the Volga, he observed great quantities of liquorice growing wild. On one of these islands Astrakan is situated, about sixty versts from the Caspian Sea, and 800 miles S E. from

Moscow, in lat. 46° 21′ 12″ N., and long. 48° 2′ 45″ E. It is but ill-built; the houses are mostly of wood, and the walls of the Kremlin are in ruins: but it contains some handsome buildings. There are twenty-five Russian churches, two Armenian, one Lutheran, one Roman Catholic, two convents, and several mosques. It is the seat both of a Russian and an Armenian archbishop. There are several manufactories of silk, cotton, stuffs, morocco leather, and shagreen. As the great emporium of the Russian commerce in the East, it is furnished with a dock-yard and spacious quays; and its port is often crowded with shipping. Its permanent population is about 20,000. The commerce is chiefly in the hands of the Armenians; but the grand source of wealth is the fishery of the beluga, which brings in annually to the citizens of Astrakan, about a million of rubles.

The government of Astrakan is of very great extent, but in general is ill-cultivated. The chief rivers are the Volga and the Ural, both of which fall into the Caspian. The other Russian ports in this sea, besides Astrakan, are Kislear and Gurief; the last is a considerable place. The manufactures of this province are of considerable importance, especially those carried on near the capital: isinglass, caviare, nitre, silk, linen, and shagreen, are made in great quantities. The last is made from the hides of horses and asses, but only certain pieces from the back are fit for the purpose: the roughness is given by pressing the grains of the *orach* into the leather while moist. The lamb-skins of Astrakan are in great repute, especially for robes of ceremony, and for lining coats, &c.

There are two tribes of Cossacks in this part of Russia, those of the Volga, and those of the Ural: both are branches of the Don Cossacks. Those of the

Volga at first passed only their summers on that river; but at length, becoming stationary, they were, in 1734, declared independent of the parent stock. The Cossacks of the Ural first separated from the parent stock about the beginning of the fifteenth century, and established themselves at the mouth of that river: they now extend along it from the Ilek to the Caspian. They retain their Cossack constitution, and number 30,000 men fit to bear arms; whereas, most of the Cossacks of the Volga are merchants and burghers.

FROM MOSCOW TO TOBOLSK.

In describing the route from Moscow to Tobolsk, we shall avail ourselves of Captain Cochrane's amusing narrative of his pedestrian journey. We have already accompanied him on this route as far as Kazan. The governor of that city obligingly gave him "a lift" in a *kibitka* as far as Perm, which he reached on the fourth day. Not far from Kazan, he crossed the Kama, which enters the Volga forty miles below that city. The country on the east side of the Kama is wild and dreary, interspersed with forests of fir, birch, and poplar, with nothing to interest except the Tâtar villages scattered at intervals of five or six miles. Mosquitoes are here very troublesome in summer. Perm is a considerable city, situated on the right bank of the Kama, in the midst of a thick forest, the trees of which extend to the very gates. It was built by the Empress Catherine in a regular and handsome manner, and contains about 8,000 inhabitants. Its trade is considerable, particularly in iron, copper, and salt. It is the capital of a province, in which, besides Russians, are found several half-civilised tribes, mostly of the Tâtar race. The total population of the pro-

vince is estimated at 800,000. The soil is for the most part good: corn is both cheap and abundant, and is exported in large quantities. The face of the country is generally level, till near the Siberian frontier, at the base of the Ural mountains, which commence at the distance of 160 versts from Perm. "The ascent and descent of this mountain barrier," Capt. Cochrane says, "are so nearly imperceptible, that were it not for the precipitous banks every where to be seen, the traveller would hardly suppose he had crossed a range of hills." On reaching the Asiatic side, he found the inhabitants of all the villages "much more civil, more hospitable, and more cleanly dressed."

Ekaterinburgh, founded by Peter the Great, and so named in honour of his empress, is "the key of Siberia." Here, passports are rigorously examined. It is a well-built town, near the source of the Iset, and contains about 15,000 inhabitants. In the neighbourhood are very large iron and copper founderies: the copper mines are nearly 300 miles distant. At twelve miles from the town are the gold mines of Berezofsky, the produce of which is, however, very trifling:* platina has recently been found in them. The inhabitants generally are bondsmen either to the Government or to private individuals. About 100 males and 20 females pass through this town weekly into Siberia, who, as exiles or criminals, are doomed to work in the mines and manufactories of Siberia. The rate of their progress is from ten to fifteen miles a day, except on Sundays and holydays. Houses are built at every station for their reception. If they become ill, the peasants are obliged to forward them

* "One guinea's worth of pure gold," Capt. C. says, "to every 4,000 lb. of earth."

in *telegas*. The wives and families of the convicts are permitted to accompany them, if they think proper.

Tuman is the first town in the government of Tobolsk, about 200 miles from that city, and the same distance from Ekaterinburgh. It was the first town built by the Russians in Siberia. From its local situation on the Toura, in the midst of populous villages and a fertile country, it enjoys a considerable trade in timber, tallow, hides, and embroidery: its population is about 8,000. Most of the stations between this town and Tobolsk lie on the banks of the Toura, which flows through a country well cultivated and abounding with immense herds of cattle. Captain Cochrane represents the inhabitants as wealthy and hospitable. The view of the city and fortress of Tobolsk, on arriving from the west, he describes as very fine.

Tobolsk stands in lat. 58° 11′ 42″ N., and in long. 68° 6′ 15″ E., 800 miles east of Moscow, at the confluence of the Irtish and the Tobol.* Tobolsk was formerly the capital of all Siberia, afterwards that of a province, and now of Western Siberia. The jurisdiction of the governor-general who resides here, comprehends Tomsk and Omsk, while the governor-general of Irkutsk rules also Yenisseisk, Yakutsk, Okotsk, and Kamtchatka. The town is fortified with a strong brick wall, having square towers and bastions,

* The Tobol, which has its source in the steppe of Kirguiss, is said to receive its name from a small tree which abounds on its banks, called by the Kirguiss *toboul*, and by the Russians *tavolga*. It is navigable from the mouth of the Ui. After a course of 500 versts, during which it receives the Iset, the Toura, and the Tavola on its left bank, it falls into the Irtish. The latter river, one of the largest in Northern Asia, comes from the country of the Mongols, traverses Lake Kizalpou, and, after a long and winding course, falls into the Ob in lat. 61°, about 600 versts below Tobolsk.

and is always well furnished with military stores. Within the walls are, the governor's palace, the courts of justice, a large cathedral, several churches, "fortunately no convents," and the palace of the archbishop.

The suburbs, which lie along the banks of the river, and are surrounded with a ditch and palisadoes, are occupied by the Tâtars, who enjoy the privileges of trade, and the exercise of their religion. In person, language, and manners, they resemble the Tâtars of Kazan and Astrakan. A considerable trade with China is still carried on here; but latterly, Irkutsk has become, from the superior advantages of its situation, a formidable rival. It has also lost much by the change of route, the caravans no longer using it as a halting place in their road to further Siberia. Its population is about 15,000. The climate is severe, but, in other respects, it is by no means so uncomfortable a place of abode as, from the latitude and country in which it lies, would naturally be supposed. Provisions are cheap and abundant; and, what is remarkable, the society is good, at least, gay and polite. Shops, theatres, and other places of public amusement, are numerous. There are also booksellers' shops, and French hotels, where may be had French wines, with English porter and beer.

The country immediately adjacent, preserves, Capt. Cochrane says, much of its natural wild magnificence, especially as it is seen from the residence of the governor. "In front are the noble Irtish and Tobol, joining their waters from the east and the south, and continuing their united course through the black and impenetrable forests, till lost in the verge of the horizon. The numerous pasture lands on the opposite banks of the river, with here and there a smoking

chimney, enliven the scene, and render the place, with all its surrounding but distant deserts, a really enviable retreat. Immediately under the eye are the river and lower town, with its regularly intersecting streets. All these afford ocular demonstration that Tobolsk is far from being a dull place. Yet, even in summer, the situation is very cold and bleak, being in the latitude of near 59°; and the thermometer, during the winter, at times falling as low as 40° or 42° of Reaumur; while, on the other hand, it is not always free from the opposite unpleasantness of extreme heat."

No convicts or malefactors are permitted to remain here, but only those who are banished from political causes. Provincial schools on the Lancasterian system are established here; and though they were in their infancy when Captain Cochrane visited them, nearly 1,000 boys attended them.

The soil of the province is chiefly marl and chalk, except in the north, which is covered with immense tracts of sand. From the nature of the soil and the dreariness of the climate, the timber is generally stunted in its growth. The population is estimated at one million; yet, so poor are they, that the net revenue received from this government does not exceed 150,000*l.* sterling. It extends from the latitude of 50° to the Frozen Sea, and nearly 1,000 miles from west to east. The northern districts are inhabited by Samoieds and Ostiaks, a wild, barbarous race, who live by fishing and hunting.

Western Siberia is said, on authority which is rather doubtful, to have been first discovered and conquered by a Cossack freebooter, of the name of Yermak, at the beginning of the sixteenth century. Obliged to flee from the country between the Don and the Volga,

on account of the ravages committed by his banditti, he led them, after various adventures, towards the north, and, having discovered and partially subdued Siberia, made his peace with Russia by giving information of the existence of this country. After seven years of constant warfare, he was surprised and defeated by the Tâtars, and perished with all his own troops, together with some that the Russian Government had sent him. For the time, the Russian empire in Siberia was abandoned; but it was not long before the court of Muscovy, taking advantage of the intestine commotions of the native princes, sent out another expedition, which soon recovered the territory of Tobolsk and Tara; and in the space of a century, the whole of Siberia, from Europe to the Eastern Ocean, and from the Frozen Sea to the Chinese frontier, was subdued and annexed to that vast empire.

Whatever truth there may be in the adventures and conquests of Yermak, it is certain that the Cossacks of Siberia regard themselves as descended from his followers. Their present number is said to exceed 100,000; but of these, only 14,000 do military duty; the rest are engaged in various trades. The whole number of the Cossack male population in the Russian dominions is reckoned at half a million; and of these, about 200,000 are liable to be called on for military service.

Mr. Bell states, that, in all the road from Tobolsk to Tara, a distance of 500 versts, he met with only one Russian village; he passed, however, several Tâtar villages, which both this Traveller and Captain Cochrane represent as being neat, clean, and comfortable. Their white plastered chimneys and ovens, reminded the latter of those of his own country. The houses consist in general of one or two rooms.

Near the hearth is an iron kettle; and at one end of the apartment, a bench covered with mats or skins; on this, all the family sit by day, and sleep by night. They are particular in having clean bedding and many pillows. The walls are of wood and moss,—a layer of moss between every two beams. A square hole is cut out for a window; and to supply the want of glass, a piece of ice is often put in: two or three pieces will last the whole winter. They use no stoves. Near the house is commonly a shed for the cattle. The furniture consists of a few earthenware utensils and a set of tea-things.* They have neither chairs nor stools. The women never eat or drink till the men are done, and then seldom in their presence.

Tara, on the Irtish, is situated in a district abounding with wood, corn-fields, and fine pasturage. Mr. Bell found the air much milder here than at any place since he had left Kazan. Sixty versts from Tara, there is a Russian village, the last till we come to the river Ob. Three hundred miles South-east from Tobolsk is Omsk, at the junction of the Irtish and the Om. It consists of the citadel, the town, and suburbs; and contains a population of about 7,500. It was one of the strong places of the Tâtars, and there is always a strong garrison here; there is also a military college on the Lancasterian system, which is well conducted. The country round is quite flat, fertile, but not well cultivated. Opposite to the town is the territory of the Kirguis Tâtars, with whom and with the Calmucks to the South, the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in bartering tobacco, spirits,

* The richer peasants, we are told, drink tea morning and evening: this they procure from China, of a quality superior to any that is brought to England.

&c. for cattle. The Kirguis, though in some degree tributary to Russia, have their own khans. They are divided into three hordes, who wander over the country between Omsk and the Caspian Sea. Captain Cochrane thus describes two of the Kirguis chiefs, with whom he dined: — "Their appearance was handsome and manly; a long robe of blue cloth, beautifully embroidered, and fastened round the waist by a highly-polished silver belt, from which was suspended a dagger, a knife, a pipe, and what in England might be termed a tinder-box; a shirt of coloured cotton, large Tâtar trowsers, and boots to correspond; a handsome fur cap, with a small black one under it to cover the clean-shaved head; a long beard, and bare neck. Their horses were well accoutred, and were managed with a long whip, which serves also for the driving of the cattle."

About eight days from Tobolsk, is Tomsk, on the right bank of the Toura, near its junction with the Ob, in latitude 56° 29′ 38″ North, and longitude 85° 9′ 51″ East. During May and June, it is subject to inundation from the river. There are some good streets, planked for the accommodation of foot-passengers. Its population is about 10,000, who carry on a brisk trade with the Calmucks, Ostiaks, and other tribes, for cattle, furs, &c. It is the capital of a province of the same name, containing a population of 500,000 souls, of whom about 80,000 pay taxes. Near Tomsk, terminates the great desert of Baraba,—a Tâtar word, signifying a marshy plain; it is full of lakes and marshy grounds, overgrown with birch, willow, and alder. Mr. Bell travelled over it for ten days. Its scanty population are poor and miserable. They are partly of the Mohammedan, partly of the Calmuck religion. A few rein-deer and fish consti-

tute their precarious and scanty food. Their dress consists of sheep skins; they are very dirty; and their huts are sunk about one-half under ground.

A country for the most part wild and uncultivated extends nearly the whole way from Tomsk to Irkutsk, the capital of Eastern Siberia, situated in latitude 52° 16′ 41″ N., and longitude 104° 11′ E. It stands in a plain, at the right bank of the Angara, at a point opposite to where the Irkut falls into that river. The public buildings are good, and the streets are wide; the houses are mostly of wood. The population amounts to 15,000, including the military. The commerce carried on here is very considerable, particularly in furs and Chinese commodities. The surrounding mountains abound in slate and coal; and the Baikal lake and the mines of Nertchinsk offer rich stores to the naturalist and mineralogist. The government of Irkutsk is very extensive; its breadth, from east to west, being 2,000 miles, while, from north to south, it stretches 1,500. The inhabitants amount to about 650,000, so that there is not more than one person to every four square miles. The number of convicts is estimated at from 10 to 12,000: the children of these become crown peasants.

The Baikal lake is 585 versts in length, and about 100 in width, extending from about the 51st to the 55th parallel of North latitude. The water is fresh and transparent, but of a green or sea tinge. It is usually frozen by the latter end of December, and not free from ice till May. It is at particular periods subject to violent storms, whence it is called by the Russians the testy sea. It contains many seals and abundance of fish, particularly a kind of herring. There are several small islands on the lake: in one of these there are sulphureous springs. The chief rivers flowing

into it are the Selinga from the south, and the higher Angara from the east. It is bounded on the north by a ridge of high rocks, which run from one end of it to the other. There is only one opening by which it discharges itself, which, though it is a natural passage, appears as if it were cut through the rocks by art. "In my opinion," says Mr. Bell, "one cannot imagine a more beautiful prospect of nature than is seen from the top of these mountains. The land on the south side of the lake, rises gradually till it terminates in hills mostly covered with wood. On the western shore, there are very high mountains, several of which are generally overspread with snow. The woods on the summit of the rocks to the north, are short and thinly scattered; but, on their declivity and in the valley, the trees become gradually both taller and larger. There is abundance of game and wild beasts in these woods, particularly the wild boar, which was the first of that species we found in that country,—a certain sign of a temperate climate." The climate on the southern side of the Baikal is much more temperate than on the northern side; and the soil is richer, producing rich crops of wheat and other grain. In the summer, this sea is crossed with some difficulty and danger, in consequence of the sudden changes of the wind; and the transports are not unfrequently twenty or thirty days in making the passage, though it is only about fifty miles. In winter, sledges drawn by horses are employed. Captain Cochrane was only two hours and a half in crossing. There is, however, some danger even in this mode, not only from the ice giving way at points that are imperfectly frozen, but also from the gusts of wind which sweep with irresistible violence along its surface. Besides the passage across the Baikal, there is another route to the East by land; but in this route, there occurs a very

steep and rugged mountain. The merchants, however, occasionally make use of this route for transporting their goods.

In pursuing his route to Kamtchatka, Captain Cochrane did not cross the Baikal, but proceeded down the Lena, in a canoe, paddled by himself, a Cossack, and two other persons. During one part of his route, he advanced 300 miles in four days, though the river was covered with floating ice; but, he says, there is nothing the hardy inhabitants will not do, and without murmuring. "Sometimes, the boat was so much entangled in the ice, that the poor fellows were compelled to strip and track her, up to their waists in water, while the atmosphere was at 5° of cold." At Jerbat, he passed the line which divides the Tongousians from the Yakuti. The former tribe, who are nearly all nomades, are in person small and rather delicate, their features regular and pleasing, though the peculiar elongation of their eyes, and their being set far apart, mark them as descended from the Mongul race. Their dress is like that of the Tâtars, except that it is better adapted to the climate. Their beds are made of bear-skins, or of those of the rein-deer; their blankets from the same animals, lined with the warmest fur, and in shape like a bag, so as completely to enclose the feet. Their general mode of living resembles that of all the other Siberian tribes.

As Captain Cochrane advanced into the country of the Yakuti, the villages became less frequent, and the distance between the stations was from 35 to 40 miles. In consequence of his boat being frozen in, he was obliged to perform the last part of his journey to Yakutsk by land. This place is situated on the west bank of the Lena, in a very bleak situation: it is a considerable place for trade, and a great thoroughfare for the Russian American Company. Its population

is about 7,000, of whom one-half are Russians. In the district of which it is the chief town, there are scattered over an immense extent of country, about 185,000 inhabitants, 50,000 of whom pay tribute, principally in furs. The Lena is navigable during its whole course, having no cataracts so great as to prevent the passage of vessels of considerable burden. It receives many great rivers, most of which come from the East; and is well stored with excellent fish.

From Yakutsk, Captain Cochrane proceeded in a north-eastern direction to Nishney Kolymsk, in the hope of being able to pass through the country of the Tchuktchi, and so to cross Behring's Straits for America. In this, however, he failed; whether from the suspicions or the avarice of the natives, does not clearly appear. "Nishney Kolymsk may be termed," says Captain Cochrane, "a large town in this part of the world, containing, as it does, nearly fifty dwellings and about 400 people, or eighty families; which is three times the number of any place between it and Kakutsk." It stands on the east side of an island in the Kolyma, about twenty-five miles long, and opposite to the mouth of the river Aniny; in lat. 68° 33′ N., long. 166° 30′ E. "The island is covered only with low brushwood, but receives fine timber which is floated down the river. No cultivation can of course be expected in a climate wherein scarcely a blade of grass is to be seen; the horses, which do sometimes tarry in its vicinity for a few days, feed upon the tops, stumps, and bark of the bushes, or upon the moss. The inhabitants manage, notwithstanding, with great labour to feed a couple of cows; though, to do this, they are obliged to bring the hay eighty miles. They are mostly Cossacks, with half a dozen pedlars, and three priests, the whole of whom carry on some traffic.

The occupation of people in this part of the world,

naturally depends upon the season. Laying in wood for fuel, hunting, and trading, are the winter occupations; while fishing and fowling are almost the exclusive employment in spring and autumn: summer is generally the building time, the wood for which is floated down the Kolyma from Sredne Kolymsk. The women embroider gloves, caps, boots, shoes, and various things, in a neat manner. Further on, to the southward, they also attend to the breeding of cattle. Fishing may, however, be termed the grand concern, employing, as it does, alike men, women children, and dogs."

The situation is far from salubrious: among the diseases to the ravages of which it is subject, Captain Cochrane mentions leprosy, apoplexy, and scurvy, and two anomalous diseases, called *diable au corps* and imerachism. The former is attended with incessant hiccoughs: the latter is a nervous affection, leading the imerach to imitate, while the fit is on, whatever action he sees. This part of the country was formerly highly productive in furs; but the elks, rein-deer, and wild sheep have retired to the extremities of Siberia, and are now rarely met with within the commissariat. The shores of the Icy sea are still much frequented by the white, blue, and red fox; and near the woods, valuable sables are still to be met with; but the inhabitants look to the Tchuktchi for their winter clothing and most valuable furs. Game of the feathered kind is abundant; the inhabitants, however, "have neither the time nor the means to look after them."

At this place, Captain Cochrane met with Baron Wrangel, who had just returned from his expedition round Shelatskoi Noss; and he received from him the following information. The N.E. coast had, previously to his expedition, been ascertained, as far as Baranov Cape, situated in long. 169° E. In 1821,

Baron Wrangel surveyed the distance between this cape and Cape Kuzmin. The distance of ninety miles between Cape Kuzmin and Cape North, he was prevented from surveying at this time, for want of provisions; subsequently, however, he accomplished this task. Five expeditions were undertaken in the course of three years by this intrepid navigator. The object of three of these enterprises was, to cross the Frozen Ocean, but none of them succeeded. Some of the Tchuktchi, however, having reported to the Baron, the existence of land only fifty miles N.E. of Shelatskoi Noss, he proceeded thither, and thence directed his course north-east. He had not proceeded more than thirty miles, when a violent storm came on, and being destitute of provisions, he was obliged to return; not, however, before he had surveyed all the line from Shelastkoi Noss to the Bay of Klashomie and Serdze Kamen, and thus ascertained the exact boundaries of Asia in this quarter, and that it does not join America.

Captain Cochrane, not being permitted by the Tchuktschi to pass through their country, determined on making, by the shortest route, for Okotsk, in opposition to the remonstrances of his companions, who recommended, as the only safe and practicable measure, a previous return to Yakutsk. The difficulties and perils of the route were such as fully justified the advice he had received. What they were, may be seen from the following extract from this letter to the Governor-general of Siberia, accounting to him for departing from the original design of his travels:—

"From the River Kolyma, I had last the honour of addressing your excellency; since when, I have come over a large tract of desolate country, nearly two thousand miles, with great labour and some peril. The difficulties I have had to contend with, surpass

every thing of the kind I have before seen, and required every exertion of mine to conquer; which I did not do under seventy-five days of hard labour. My route lay along the Kolyma, Zyzanka, Indigirka, Omekon, and Okota; all of which are, at this season of the year, large, rapid, dangerous, and almost impassable rivers. Besides these, there are numerous other streams, as well as lofty mountains of frozen snow, large overflowed marshes, crowded and decayed forests, and half-frozen lakes, which present themselves in every part of this journey. Suffering at the same time cold, rain, hunger, and fatigue, with forty-five nights' exposure to the snow; at times without fire, in a frost of thirty degrees; and latterly, five days being passed without food; never having seen an individual during four hundred miles, and but one habitation in the extent of one thousand; being frequently bewildered and lost in the snow mountains:—all these circumstances tend to weary and dispirit a traveller upon a like journey, and render him incapable of addressing your excellency in a proper style. But I am unwilling to allow a post to escape without communicating my past and future movements. I was induced to undertake the last journey, in order that I might reach Okotsk in time to proceed to America or Kamtchatka, as circumstances should render most desirable or necessary: otherwise, the proper route from the Kolyma to Okotsk is viâ Yakutsk, the route of the Omekon having been discontinued thirty years, in consequence of the difficulties and perils which ever attend it."

Okotsk is situated in the north-east part of a bay of the sea of the same name, in latitude 59° 20′ 10″ N., long. 143° 13′ 45″ E. The population is about 1,500; they are principally occupied in ship-building and manufacturing salt. The country round is highly

productive of timber. The Russian American Company have an establishment here. From this place, our Traveller crossed the Sea of Okotsk to St. Peter and St. Paul's, in Kamtchatka. This peninsula, which is of an elliptical figure, forming the south-eastern extremity of Siberia, extends from the latitude of 51° to 59° N., and from 155° to 165° E. longitude. It is bounded, on the west, by the Sea of Okotsk; on the east and south, by the Pacific Ocean; on the north, by the country of the Koriaks. A chain of mountains, with numerous volcanic peaks, traverse its whole length from north to south. The only navigable river is the Kamtchatka, which, after a long course towards the north and north-east, falls into the Eastern Ocean, in lat. 56° 30′ N. It admits vessels of 100 tons 150 miles up. All the rivers abound in fish. There are also numerous lakes; so that, except when these are frozen, there is no intercourse between the several parts of the peninsula. It abounds in timber fit for ship-building; but corn and vegetables seldom come to perfection, in consequence of the severity of the climate, the soil at all seasons, at the depth of two or three feet, being frozen. The winter is long and severe; in spring and autumn there are heavy rains; the greatest heat is in July. The inhabitants depend for subsistence on fish, wild animals, and wild game, all of which are in great abundance; they likewise mix the bark of trees with wild or uncultivated vegetables. The natives are supposed to be a different race from the other inhabitants of Siberia: they are short, broad, with slender arms and legs black hair, round face, high cheek bones, and sunken eyes. The whole population is supposed not to exceed 7 or 8,000. Epidemic disorders are very frequent, and commit great devastations among them. The number of real Kamtchatdales who retain their ancient usages,

is very small: they reside on the northern coast. The rest of the inhabitants are established in villages, built in the old Russian style. Formerly, the Kamtchatdales received their principal articles of commerce from the Japanese; but latterly, the Russians have supplied them with coarse cloth, knives, tobacco, sugar, iron, &c. in exchange for furs and skins. Kamtchatka is said to have been first discovered by a Cossack, in 1696; it was finally subdued by the Russians in 1711, but did not attract attention as a commercial station till subsequently to the discovery of the Aleutian, Beering, and Fox Islands. It is divided into four districts, and protected by a force of 500 men. The settlements of the Russians are few and small. St. Peter and St. Paul's, which is the chief, contains about thirty houses. It stands in lat. 53° 0′ 15″ N., and in 158° 4′ 9″ E. longitude.

At Okotsk, circumstances had occurred which determined Capt. Cochrane not to prosecute his journey beyond Kamtchatka. He returned to Europe by way of Irkutsk and Verchney Udinsk, "a large, populous, and flourishing city," situated on the right bank of the transparent Selenga, distant from Irkutsk 200 miles, and 70 miles above Selenginsk, upon the ruins of which it has risen. It has many handsome brick houses, churches, and public edifices, and the streets are laid out at right angles. This place is the grand mart between Irkutsk and Kiakhta, on the Chinese frontier, and carries on a lucrative trade with the Buriats, a numerous and wealthy Tâtar tribe. A strong garrison is kept up here, as it is considered as a frontier town. The situation is healthy, and the society good. The population is about 2,600. The banks of the river between this place and Selinginsk, are highly picturesque; they consist of immense mountains of porphyry, in which gold is said to be found.

From Verchney, Capt. Cochrane proceeded for forty miles along the banks of the river Uda (a tributary of the Selenga), and across the Buriat steppe, to Nertchinsk, distant from Verchney about 500 miles due East. This town, which is "vilely built, badly situated and worse inhabited," stands at the confluence of the rivers Nertcha and Shilka, which here unite with the Amour, in lat. 51° 56′ N., long. 116° E. The surrounding country is bleak and bare, not affording even fire-wood. At this town, a treaty was signed in 1689, between the Russians and the Chinese. About the middle of that century, the Russians had advanced as far as this river; here they subdued some Tongusian chiefs, and began to erect fortresses. The Chinese having entertained similar designs, it became necessary to form some amicable arrangement, not, however, before hostilities had actively begun. By the treaty, the Russians not only lost an extensive territory, but also the navigation of the Amour, which would have been of great consequence to their remote possessions in Asia. In the year 1727, the limits between the Chinese and Russians were continued to the westward, and thus, the boundary was completed between the latter and the Monguls subject to China. No part of the Amour is within the limits of the Russian empire. It is remarkable, that this river is the only one between Kazan and these parts, that runs eastward: it falls into the Chinese Ocean. Most, if not all of the great rivers in Siberia, have their course to the north and north-west.

One hundred and eighty miles from Nertchinsk, is the *Bolshoy Zavod*, or Great Fabric. The intervening country is highly picturesque; and the soil so rich, that corn-villages are every where to be seen. The inhabitants occupying these villages, are all exiles of the upper sort, and yet, Capt. Cochrane remarks, are

as ill-looking a class of persons as he ever beheld. Nertchinsk reminded him forcibly of those pathetic descriptions of the mines of Siberia drawn by romantic writers: here their ideas are verified. The *Bolshoy Zavod* contains about 3,000 persons: the huts are miserable, the soil barren, and the climate extremely severe. The criminals are allowed only 36 rubles (equal to 27 shillings) annually, to procure them raiment, food, firing, and lodging; and yet, the winters are as severe as in any other part of Siberia. There are five silver founderies besides that of Nertchinsk. The thirteen principal silver mines produced formerly about one pound weight of silver for every 4,000 pounds weight of ore; the present proportion is one-third less: there are also lead-mines. The number of convicts employed to procure the silver, which does not exceed an average value annually of 25,000*l.*, is 2,458; but, besides these, there are nearly 18,000 male peasants attached to the founderies, and rather a greater number of females; so that, including all these, the persons released from labour, the officers employed to superintend and guard them, &c., Captain Cochrane calculates, that there are 48,027 individuals employed, and that the produce of each is not above 10*s.* 5*d.* per annum.

Our adventurous Pedestrian next resolved on a trip of 150 miles to Kiakhta and Maimatchin, on the Chinese line. The first twenty-five miles were over mountains; he then descended the steep banks of the Selenga, and pursued his route up its course, halting at the missionary station at Selenginsk. Thence, passing through forty miles of dreary scenery, where only a few miserable villages are to be seen, he reached the point where the road leads off from the river through a more open and wooded country. The hills near Kiakhta rise in a commanding manner, and

spread out in various directions, forming beautiful, but unproductive valleys. "Every thing, in short," says our Traveller, "denotes a frontier situation; and something seemed to say, that here are the limits of two mighty empires."

Kiakhta is situated on a little brook of the same name, which serves as the boundary here between Russia and China. It stands in lat. 52° 56′ N., long. 105° E.; 4,200 miles from Moscow, and about 1,500 from Pekin. It is neatly and regularly built, containing 450 houses, with 4,000 inhabitants; a larger proportion to each dwelling, than is to be found, probably, in any other part of the Russian empire: no stone buildings are allowed to be erected, besides the church. The climate is deemed healthy, although the water is not good; that which is drunk by the wealthier inhabitants, comes from a distance of two miles, and firewood from a distance of twenty. The soil is so poor that vegetables are raised with difficulty. Beyond the fortress, and immediately opposite the Chinese town of Maimatchin, is old Kiakhta, where only merchants reside, no officer or stranger being permitted to sleep in it, according to an article of the treaty between the two powers. It contains forty-five handsome dwellings, many of which have rich stores. The Chinese village, which is wholly unfortified, is about 200 fathoms from Old Kiakhta. It is a small, ill-built, mud town, with four narrow, unpaved streets; containing, during the fair, from 12 to 1,500 men and boys; no women being professedly allowed to live here. The fixed population is from 3 to 500 souls. The houses have no windows towards the streets; and altogether, the place reminded our Traveller of the old Moorish towns in the south of Spain, and along the northern coast of Africa. Both the streets and the houses were clean. Capt. Cochrane visited

the place in company with one of the most respectable merchants, which procured him an affable and hospitable reception. Tea, liqueurs, dried fruits, cakes, punch, and segars were immediately placed before their guest; and much interest seemed to be excited at finding an Englishman in this distant part of the celestial empire. The best understanding exists between the Russian and Chinese merchants. No ceremony is observed on either side, on entering each other's village; and entertainments are given alternately by each party: some of the Russian merchants of Kiakhta are believed to be immensely rich.

Captain Cochrane had before crossed the Russian frontier, at Malaya Narymka, in his way to Irkutsk, having diverged from his direct road, for the sake of gratifying himself by a harmless incursion on the celestial empire. An officer and a few men at that station, were all that were left to mark the boundaries of the two empires. "I forded," says our Traveller, "the little stream which forms the actual limit; and, seating myself on a stone on the left bank, was soon lost in a reverie. It was about midnight: the moon, apparently full, was near her meridian, and seemed to encourage a pensive inclination. What can surpass that scene, I know not: some of the loftiest granite mountains, spreading in various directions, enclosing some of the most luxurious valleys in the world; yet, all deserted! all this fair and fertile tract abandoned to wild beasts, merely to constitute a neutral territory!" The first Chinese settlement is 80 miles distant from Malaya.

Such is Russia, the Gog and Magog of the modern world, — that vast, heterogeneous empire which, stretching over more than a third of the circumference of the globe, and from the Arctic sea southward beyond the latitude of Madrid or Rome, touches, on

one side, Sweden, Prussia, Austria, and Turkey; on the other side, Persia, China, and, by means of her colonies on the north-west coast of the New Continent, Mexico and the United States.* While, however, the vast aggregate strikes the imagination with its colossal bulk, the greater part of the Russian territory is but the waste land of the civilised world. This largest of empires is, in the scale of political greatness, one of the feeblest of nations.† It has gone on increasing in bulk, till it is incumbered with its own vastness. And, throughout its huge extent, the pulse of mind, the circulation of commercial or moral energy, is so feeble as scarcely to give the semblance of political life to its various parts. The great majority of the people are as yet but little removed from the uncivilised and brutish state in which they were left by the Ruriks and Vladimirs of other times. There are but two classes, the noble and the slave. The government is a despotism of a strictly oriental character, administered by a military police: the word of the emperor, if not his will, is law, for his will may be controlled by his vizier or his janissaries. The religion, literature, and commerce of Russia are all exotic. Her sacred language is Greek; her polite language, French; her vulgar language, a compound of Greek, Latin, German, French, and Slavonian. Her literati are Germans; her merchants, to a great extent, British; her bravest officers, Poles or Cossacks. The Slavonic alphabet is said to have been first introduced in the ninth century. The oldest existing

* It has been computed that the superficial extent of the Russian empire is 920,000 square leagues, "being the ninth part of terra firma, and the twenty-eighth of the whole globe."

† With a population of fifty millions, and an extent of superficial territory forty-two times that of France, the revenue of Russia in 1817 was under 13,000,000*l.*; that of France nearly 37,000,000*l.*

written documents are two treaties with the Greek emperors of the tenth century. The first Russian Grammar was published in England towards the close of the seventeenth.* The oldest printed book is a Slavonic Psalter dated Kiev, 1551. Two years after, a press was established at Moscow; and the first paper which was used for it was manufactured in England. Such is Russia, a country most interesting, viewed as a political phenomenon, though destitute of all those features of historic or moral grandeur that give attraction to the countries which have been the scenes of the ancient monarchies. What Russia may become,—what she would be, if she had seamen as well as ships, commerce as well as extent of territory, and wealth as well as millions of slaves, it is not for us to predict. Commercial wealth and naval power are the two things wanting to make the semi-barbarous colossus as really formidable as it would gladly be thought. Muscovy has, indeed, been continually travelling southward; and it is well understood, that there exists a wish that its limits should protrude into the Mediterranean. Were this to be effected, Russia would soon cease to be Russia; for neither the Northern Palmyra nor the Tartarian Rome would long remain her capital.

* *Ludolfi Grammatica Russica.* Oxon. 1696.—See Bowring's Russian Anthology, p. xii.

THE END

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